The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 11, 1892.

The Week.

THE statement put in print by Congressmen Sayers and Dockery of the House Appropriations Committee shows that there will be a deficiency of $52,365,820 in the current fiscal year according to the appropriations made and the estimates of revenue submitted. The appropriations for the year ending June 30, 1893, are $507,701,380; estimated revenues for the same period, $455,336,350. Among the permanent appropriations included in the total is that for the sinking fund, $48,632,000. The law requires that this sinking-fund payment shall be made in each fiscal year, but Secretary Foster has construed *each* fiscal year to mean *any* fiscal year, and has accordingly taken credit for previous redemptions of the public debt that were over and above the stipulated amount of the sinking fund. Messrs. Sayers and Dockery say that he has no choice but to omit the sinking-fund payment. He has not the money to make it. In fact, he has not enough to make the necessary payments. The last Congress botched its job tremendously. It added $50,000,000 to the pension largess, and it knocked off $50,000,000 of income by repealing sugar duties, and then it added $10,000,000 of sugar bounties because it had repealed the duties. This depletion of revenue and paying of bounties was believed to be necessary in order to make the McKinley Bill acceptable to the taxpayers. It was necessary to show them some relief to compensate for the exactions of the protected classes. So the sugar duties were thrown over—all except what belonged to the Sugar Trust. The grand result of new pensions, bounties, and free raw sugar is a difference of $110,000,000 "to the bad" in the national book-keeping. By ignoring the sinking fund, the actual deficit for the year will be only three or four millions, but the Pension Bill will be larger in the next fiscal year—Senator Gorman says $20,000,000 larger. There may be some increase of revenue owing to increase of population and of trade, but not nearly so much as this. There seems to be no alternative but an increase of taxation.

The Alabama election proves to have been much closer than the first returns indicated. It now appears that Kolb, the opposition candidate, received fully half of the white vote, and probably a little more; and that Jones, the regular Democrat, owes his majority of about 10,000 in the whole State to the "black counties," where he secured the bulk of the negro vote. This shows that the opposition to the regulars was much more determined than had been anticipated. But it does not indicate by any means that the same division among the whites will continue through the Presidential campaign. The recent contest was between two candidates who had always been Democrats, and the Republicans could not profit by any result of the election. But henceforth the issue will be whether men who have heretofore voted the Democratic ticket in Presidential elections shall cast their ballots next November in such a way that the Republicans may be able to get more votes for the Harrison and Reid ticket than are cast for either of the other tickets. There is consequently no reason for the assumption that last week's election means that Alabama is a doubtful State in November, as national issues will doubtless bring most of the Kolb bolters back into line. The solidity of the white vote in the South since the war has been an abnormal thing, which every one of sense has recognized as only temporary. It would have been broken long since if it had not been for the threat of Force Bill legislation, and it is the threat of such legislation which assures Democratic union in this year's Presidential election at the South, however much favor the whites may lend independent State movements like that led by Kolb.

Michigan makes a happy escape from the muddle over the division of the State into legislative districts. It will be remembered that the Supreme Court recently annulled by a unanimous decision the apportionment made by the last Democratic Legislature, on the ground of its unconstitutionality in not making the districts of equitable dimensions, and at the same time passed similar judgment upon the Republican apportionment of 1885, declaring that "for many years the apportionments made by the Republican Legislatures have been thoroughly partisan and inconsistent with the direct language of the Constitution." The Governor thereupon called a special session of the Legislature, which has agreed upon a measure so just to both parties that it received almost a unanimous vote, and is admitted by Republicans to be fair. Why could not the Democrats have submitted such a measure at the regular session, and thus saved all of this bother and expense?

Judge Rumsey's decision in the Monroe Co. (N.Y.) case, declaring the Reapportionment Act passed by the last Legislature to be unconstitutional, was not unexpected. The question will now be carried to the General Term and thence to the Court of Appeals, with the prospect of a final decision early in October. Judge Rumsey puts aside two of the objections to the act, that the enumeration was taken in 1892 instead of 1895, and that the extraordinary session which passed the act did not follow the constitutional requirement that the apportionment should be made at the first session after the enumeration, by saying that they have already been settled by courts of high authority He rests his decision on the two remaining grounds, first, that persons of color not taxed were included in the enumeration, though the Constitution forbids such inclusion; and, second, that the apportionment of several Senate districts and the division of some of the Assembly districts among the counties were so unfair as to violate the constitutional requirements. As the higher courts are to pass upon these points, it is manifestly a waste of time for laymen to express opinions upon them.

The believers in a single tax seem to have at last been able to make a practical application of their theory, according to a report that comes to us from Maryland. At a town in that State called Hyattsville, where many persons employed in Washington reside, the commissioners empowered to assess property for taxation omitted from their assessment all personal property and all improvements upon lands, thus carrying into effect Henry George's ideas. Some of the owners of unimproved property, conceiving themselves to be unfairly taxed, applied to the court of that district for a mandamus compelling the commissioners to restore improvements upon land and personal property to the assessment list, but the court refused their request, upon the ground that the Legislature had made the decision of these commissioners final. Inasmuch as the Constitution of the State of Maryland requires all property to be taxed equally and as personalty and improvements upon land are unquestionably property, we do not understand how this decision came to be made, and it may have been incorrectly reported. Undoubtedly an appeal from it will be taken, the decision of which will be of no little importance, if, as we apprehend, it shall make it plain that the single-tax men cannot apply their theory until they have amended the constitutions of our States. What they may accomplish, and what even those who differ radically with them may hope that they will accomplish, is to check the tendency to multiply taxes. Although we cannot see our way to a single tax, we may at least contrive to raise sufficient revenue with fewer taxes than at present.

The *Tribune* has devoted much time and pains to the preparation of a table of American millionaires, and has brought

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together for the admiration of its readers the names, residences, and occupations of some four thousand people whose fortunes are believed to have passed the million-dollar mark. So much snobbery would clearly be wasted unless a moral were to be drawn; hence it is not surprising to find the *Tribune* remarking editorially: "The roll is an exceedingly interesting one, and the political point which it proves is unanswerable." Anybody who was disposed to "answer" the *Tribune* would be somewhat puzzled to know what was the conclusion which he must dispute. The *Tribune's* special tariff editor, who (quite in the line of his business, one might suppose) was detailed to collect the statistics, affirms that out of a total of 4,000 American millionaires, only 1,125 "obtained their wealth through protected industries." This would lead one to suppose that the *Tribune's* "unanswerable political point" was the existence of many great fortunes built up without Government assistance. We suspect that nobody will be hardy enough to contest this "point," though the labor of canvassing 4,000 American millionaires seems a trifle disproportionate to the logical results established. But the *Tribune's* tariff editor does not seem content with his axiom, and, in fact, appears uneasy lest he had actually proved too much. By way of qualification, he adds that "if all the fortunes of the United States, large and small, had been made under the protective tariff, that fact might be a powerful argument in favor of such a tariff." But if this be true, we should suppose, after the contempt with which the *Tribune* treats the insignificant item of 28 per cent., the total proportion of "protected" millionaires, that it regarded the protective idea as, on the whole, a failure.

We extend our sincerest condolences to the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency in the prolonged and irritating trouble he is having in reaching a final settlement with Typographical Union No. 6. It has been announced many times since his nomination that everything was satisfactorily arranged, and that the settlement had been formally ratified, but each announcement has been followed by fresh complications, requiring fresh settlement. There was another "final" meeting on Sunday, and though the *Tribune's* account gives the impression that the trouble is ended for ever now, there are intimations in other reports which cast grave doubt upon this point. The *Tribune* declares that all the trouble from the beginning has been caused by a "certain noisy but unimportant contingent of the organization that is more desirous of serving the Democratic party than of furthering the interests of the Union"—a statement which seems to show that the surrender of the *Tribune* to the Union has not been followed by the "turning over" of all the Union's votes to the Republican ticket. One of the Union orators, according to the *Tribune's* report, said that "Mr. Reid had really done more than was required by the terms of the settlement," but it was evident from the remarks of another orator, not reported in the *Tribune*, that he had not done more than would be required before peace would come, for this orator declared that "all Big Six has gained thus far is a foreman and a few compositors"; that "rats" were still employed in the *Tribune* office, every one of whom "must go" before the boycott against the office could be declared "off"; that members of the Union should at once be given the places held by non-union men, and that the use of type-setting machines was an anti-union device which ought to be denounced and its abolition from the office demanded.

All this shows that the "final settlement" is still in the distance, and that the crucial test of the entire negotiation will come when the demand is made for the abolition of the machines. It is a peculiarity of Big Six that its "demands" increase in proportion to the readiness with which they are granted. If it be true that Mr. Reid has yielded even more than was asked, he has invited all the trouble he is encountering, and he may as well make up his mind that the demand for the machines to "go" will come presently, and that the final delivery of the "vote of organized labor" will hinge upon that. He will learn from the resolutions adopted by the typographical union of Utica on Sunday that his yielding to Big Six has had very little influence for good upon other branches of typographical union labor, for he is denounced therein as having "been for many years the merciless, hateful foe of organized labor in every form, and especially the Typographical Union"; is charged with "persistently and maliciously attempting to destroy" that Union; is accused of having obtained his nomination by means of a "conspiracy between himself and a clique whose motives were entirely selfish, and whose action has been condemned and repudiated by those whom they professed to represent"; and the Republican party is charged with "designedly and malignantly insulting the members of this union and all wage-earners" in making Mr. Reid a candidate. Finally, the Utica printers pledge themselves not to vote for Harrison and Reid, and call upon all friends of workingmen to help in their defeat. All this must be very discouraging to the only typographical-union candidate for the Vice-Presidency that there is in the field, for it amounts to a flat refusal to deliver the goods as per agreement. The bolt in Omaha is another sign of the same purport.

It is not alone in this country that typographical unions seek to profit by the ambitions and fears of place-holders and place-seekers. The French Minister of Commerce has recently had the club of organized typographical labor shaken over his head. It seems that the principal of a school in Lyons had set out to establish a course in practical type-setting for girls. As soon as the Lyons Typographical Union heard of this, it wrote to the Minister of Commerce demanding that he veto the proposed course, and this demand was immediately seconded by the national federation of printers. This made the affair serious enough to cause Minister Roche to submit it to the Superior Council of Labor. Objection was made to the plans of the Lyons school, both on the score that women should not be allowed to engage in any unhealthy calling, and more especially that they should not be permitted to compete with men in a trade already overcrowded. Back of all lay the common trade-union hostility to training-schools of any kind, even for men. No adequate presentation of the other side appears to have been made to the Council of Labor, yet that body has so far refused to go the lengths demanded by the printers. Meanwhile Minister Roche is left in an embarrassing position. On the one hand, he dare not come out as an enemy of organized labor, but, on the other, he knows that if he decides against the training-school in question, he will next be called upon to abandon the whole system of technical education, upon which the country has already expended many millions.

Another illustration of the way the Administration used Federal offices to secure Harrison's renomination is afforded by the story of the post-office at Princess Anne, Md., as told by E. F. Duer, the late Postmaster. Duer was appointed about three years ago, and has managed the office so successfully that it was not long ago raised to a higher grade, which brought the place within the range of a Presidential appointment. The rule in such cases is for the President to name the incumbent if his record has been a good one, and if his continuance is desired by the patrons of the office. There is no dispute whatever as to Duer's efficiency, or as to the satisfaction of the local public with his administration. He filed his papers with the Department in due course on the 18th of May, and was told by the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General that the appointment would not be made before fifteen days. Notwithstanding this, seven days later, W. F. Lankford was appointed, without even a notice to Duer that his claims would be heard, and without any examination by the Postmaster-General of the papers which he had filed. The explanation is that Lankford's name was presented by Thomas S. Hodson, who was a delegate to the Republican National Convention, then soon to meet. As Duer says in his letter to the Postmaster-

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General: "How far these things stood to each other in relation of cause and effect, is a question which each one can decide for himself; and in view of the charges generally made as to the manner in which the President's renomination was effected, it may prove an interesting question."

Mr. Wanamaker's letter in reply virtually confesses the truth of the indictment. The Postmaster-General makes no attempt whatever to show that Duer had not been a thoroughly efficient postmaster, that his administration had not been entirely satisfactory to the public, or that he was not as much entitled to retention in his place as would be any faithful and capable clerk in his Philadelphia shop. The most interesting point in the letter is its reference to a new element in our politics—"the referee." Says Mr. Wanamaker:

"While it is true that many of the incumbents of fourth-class offices are reappointed when the offices become Presidential, there is a considerable percentage that are not reappointed, and for good and sufficient reasons not always known to the Department, inasmuch as the recommendations of the Senators, members, *or referees* resident in the districts where the offices are located, mainly are followed."

It further appears from the Postmaster-General's letter that "the referee" in the Princess Anne case was one Russum, and that the change in the office was made at Russum's demand. "I personally saw Mr. Russum," says Mr. Wanamaker, "and he told me that he desired the appointment made that Mr. Hodson recommended"—that is, the appointment of Lankford in Duer's place. In a second letter to the Postmaster-General, Duer makes all the comment that seems necessary upon this extraordinary revelation, when he says:

"With the frank statement contained in your letter as to the manner in which my successor was appointed, I am compensated for my trouble I took to write to you. The referee system, which under this Administration has completely disorganized the Republican party in this district, was supposed to be based on the theory (never carried into practice) that the referee would act impartially and give his endorsement according to merit. I am glad to have it over your hand that in the Post-office Department at least the spoils system prevails to such an extent that the referee can not only bestow the offices, but can even transfer his power of bestowing."

The *World* publishes a batch of letters written by Robert P. Porter, Superintendent of the Census, showing how he (Porter) had been acting as agent for a particular brand of champagne called Berton Sec while he was editor of the New York *Press*, booming it as the "great Republican wine," and that he continued to boom and drink Berton Sec after he received his census appointment. Among other incidents was the sending of five cases of the wine to President Harrison, which were refused by the steward of the White House as not ordered by him. Subsequently it was arranged with Private Secretary Halford that the wine would be received and consumed on condition that it was not to be paid for. Mr. Cornelius N. Bliss was favored with a gratuitous consignment also, as it was believed that he would know the difference between Republican and Democratic wines by taste, if not by an inspection of the labels. Mr. Bliss, however, declined to accept it, saying that he was not in the habit of accepting gifts from strangers. Various other well-meant attempts to establish Berton Sec as the party drink are recorded, among others a coolness between Porter and Chamberlin, the restaurant man in Washington, for which the latter sought an explanation and was informed by the Census Superintendent that it was because he (Chamberlin) did not keep Berton Sec. "I told Chamberlin," wrote Porter to the wine merchant, "a Republican Administration wanted Republican wine." The greatest success was scored by Porter when he got the Berton Sec adopted at the big Carnegie dinner in Washington. This triumph was described on Census Office paper, with the word "Glory" written at the top, as follows:

"Just think that the grandest banquet given here by the Administration, as it were, had no Mumm, no Pommery Sec, no Piper Heidsieck, and no other second-class wine, but only Berton Sec. In the name of heaven, have a lot of these bills printed, and let these one-horse restaurants and wretched hotels in Washington see that the best wine in America to-day is Berton Sec. Let them understand that when a man like Carnegie gives a dinner which is admitted to be the grandest of the season, that he has the good sense to select Royal Berton Sec."

The agency came to an end by reason of a dispute about $150, which the wine merchant claims is due him for money advanced to Porter to be spent for wine at the Tariff League dinner in 1889. Why does not the Tariff League pay the money at once, and stop the guffaw?

Prof. Soetbeer, the German economist and statistician, has made a suggestion to the coming international monetary conference which is entirely practicable, although it does not introduce international bimetallism. He proposes that silver coins shall be struck by all the countries at the ratio of 20 to 1, and shall be legal tender up to $20. The object of this is to lessen the danger of counterfeiting silver coins. At the present time the subsidiary coins of all countries have a bullion value about 50 per cent. less than their nominal value, while the full legal-tender coins — thalers in Germany, five-franc-pieces in France, and dollars in the United States—are more than 30 per cent. overvalued. The temptation to counterfeit is very strong. It is certainly desirable that it should be repressed, and as we are to have an international conference, it would be well to have a recommendation on this subject. It is not probable, however, that the nations of Europe which have ceased to coin silver of full legal-tender power would recoin their existing stock.

It appears, contrary to our recent comment on the political situation in Norway, that Emil Stang, Steen's conservative predecessor, and not Steen, has been recalled; further, that the King's opposition to the radical plan, and his prompt acceptance of Steen's resignation, were based, not upon the merits of the case, but on the manner in which it was presented. By handing in his resignation, Steen made himself and his measure politically impossible. Instead of discussing the question of a separate consular service for Norway in the Norwegian Council, thus allowing the King to express himself officially on the subject, Steen demanded a private audience with his Majesty, and unceremoniously tendered his resignation. Oscar, of course, as King of Norway, can accept no change in the consular service or in any other purely Union matter without first as King of Sweden gaining the consent of the Swedish Parliament and Council. This is not Swedish interference, it is merely the application of a principle of partnership that requires the consent of both parties to any change. We have little doubt that Norway's demand will ultimately share the fortune of all its predecessors, but only when it is presented in a constitutional manner and with a due consideration for the senior member of the firm.

A noteworthy incident occurring in Rio Janeiro a short time ago shows the view taken by the Catholic Church of the parties and methods at present dominant in Brazil. A Colonel of the National Guard went with his staff to the Cathedral and asked the Bishop of the diocese to bless the flag of his regiment. The Bishop refused, and, in order that there might be no mistake about his motives, made a short address giving the reasons for his action. He said that the blessing of a nation's flag signified the desire of the Church to see the legitimate glory of the country maintained and extended, and that the Church would be glad, now as in other days, to give her approval in that way to true patriotic sentiment. "At present, however," he continued, "I cannot bless this banner which is brought to me, since it does not represent simply the national sentiment, the union of Brazilians and the love of country, but is merely the symbol of a faction." He added that he would pray that the national standard might come to signify the union of all Brazilians. That the present Government of Brazil is nothing more nor less than a military oligarchy is sufficiently clear. One instructive bit of evidence bearing on the question is the great increase of the sums spent on the army since the "Republic" was introduced. In 1888, the last full year of the Empire, the budget of the War Department called for $7,500,000. In 1890, the first full year of the Republic, the amount was $14,800,000, and the budget for 1893 calls for $15,650,000.

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THE WORK OF CONGRESS.

THE adjournment of Congress always brings with it a feeling of relief to the country, and it has become almost the rule to estimate the merits of this body according as it has left undone those things that it ought not to have done, but which it was feared it would do. By the peculiar Constitution of the United States, which recognized to an extent unparalleled elsewhere the institution of local government, the principal functions of the general Government were limited to the maintenance of the post and of the Federal judiciary, and to the care of foreign relations, with the necessary provisions for defence thereupon attendant. The civil war gave to the National Legislature a prominence that it had never before attained, with the result that it has steadily increased its functions and enlarged the sphere of their application. This involved increased expenditure until the country was startled to find that the last Congress had contrived to impose upon it taxes amounting to about a billion of dollars—a discovery which helped to bring about a political revolution in the constitution of the House of Representatives.

The enormous majority of the Democratic party in the present House was regarded with apprehension by its most intelligent leaders, and the result has, to a certain extent, justified their fears. To subject a vast crowd of new members—many of them owing their election to such elements as the People's party or the Farmers' Alliance rather than to the regular Democratic voters—to the discipline required to make party government effective, proved to be impossible. An unfortunate intrigue, which involved much bargaining concerning the Presidency and the Speakership, occasioned bad feeling at the outset, and the determination of a certain section to obtain free coinage for silver, persisted in so desperately as to show that, in many cases at least, it had the strength of a religious conviction, prevented that hearty coöperation which is indispensable to the success of any policy in a legislative assembly. As a consequence, the attack upon the tariff was delayed so long as to lose its effect upon the country and to enable the Senate to avoid meeting it, the scandals of the Pension Office were only recently exposed, and the Census Bureau escaped investigation altogether.

It is important to remember, however, that these failures or ineffective attempts have been disadvantageous only to the interests of the Democrats as a party, and that the interests of the country at large have not suffered by them. It was the policy of the Republican party in the Senate to stand by the tariff, and if it had been overcome, the President would unquestionably have vetoed any measure of reform. The Census Bureau and the Pension Office he is directly responsible for, and, so far as we know, no Republican voice has been heard to criticise the methods prevailing in these departments. The scandalous bank frauds in Philadelphia involved so many Republican politicians high in the counsels of the party as to make it safe to say that if the obstacles that were laid in the way of investigation had been overcome, others that could not have been overcome would have succeeded them. Upon the whole, it seems fair to say that no great reform measure adopted by the Democratic House could have passed the Republican Senate, or, if it had, would have been accepted by the President. So far as we have observed, all Republicans concur in this view. Under these circumstances it is obvious that the lack of energy on the part of the Democrats, however detrimental to themselves, has occasioned no injury to the country. Neither the eloquence of Demosthenes nor the invective of Burke would have convinced any representative of a protected interest that it was not a good thing for him to compel his countrymen to buy their goods at his shop. Such men consider that they own the Government, and the only way to deal with them is for the people to replace them with men whose views are more enlightened and whose moral sense is keener.

If we turn from the sphere of the ideal but unattainable to that of the common place but practicable, we find that the Democrats of the House have rendered much greater services to the country than has been commonly supposed. The evidence of this is to be found in a six-column account of the doings of Congress published by the New York *Tribune*. It is hardly necessary to say that this account is not likely to state the Democratic case too favorably. On the contrary, it exhausts the vocabulary of billingsgate, and, so far as general statements are concerned, makes out a Democratic record "so black that charcoal would make a white mark upon it." With a single exception, if we are not mistaken, all measures passed by the House and not concurred in by the Senate are described as the product of ignorance, folly, and knavery. Upon all points of difference the action of the Senate, as here represented, was marked by intelligence, wisdom, and patriotism. In the case of the bill for the free coinage of silver, it is true that the House rejected it after the Senate had passed it; but whatever discredit attaches to the Senate on this account, in the *Tribune's* view, belongs to its Democratic members, while all the credit for defeating the measure in the House belongs to the Republicans.

If we descend to particulars, we find that the standard of wisdom and honesty adopted by the *Tribune* is a simple one. Any attempt at economy is denounced, and every increase of expenditure, and therefore of taxation, is approved. The Democrats may well be content to go to the country upon this principle, and upon the comparative table of appropriations furnished by the *Tribune*. As to certain matters, Congress has no discretion. Thus, the *Tribune* states the permanent annual appropriations of the first session of the last Congress at about $101,628,000, while those of the present are $121,863,000. Here is an increase of $20,000,000, for which the Democrats are not responsible. The appropriation for the Post-office is about $8,000,000 more than before, but this office is nearly self-sustaining, and it is not apparent that the increased appropriation implies any increased deficiency. The appropriation for pensions has increased from $98,457,000 to $146,737,000, say $48,000,000, for which the responsibility is with the Republicans. It seems, therefore, that in order to carry out the existing laws it was necessary for the House to appropriate $68,000,000 more than was required at the first session of the last Congress. If we add to this the $8,000,000 additional for the Post-office, which presumptively does not involve an increase of taxation, we have $76,000,000 as the increase inevitable if the present Congress were to make no improvement over the last one. The *Tribune* shows that the appropriations at the first session of the last Congress were about $463,400,000, while at the corresponding session of the present Congress they were about $507,970,000, the difference being, according to its statement, about $35,000,000. There is evidently some blunder here, as the increase would be nearly $10,000,000 more than this, and probably the *Tribune* has obtained its total of nearly $508,000,000 by including the National Bank Redemption Fund, so that the proper total is about $498,500,000, the increase being $35,000,000, as stated. An increased expenditure of some $75,000,000 in certain directions being unavoidable, owing to the pension and silver and bounty legislation of the Republicans, the Democrats succeeded nevertheless in economizing in other directions to the extent of $40,000,000. If we were to compare the appropriations of this session with those of the last session of the previous Congress, which were $525,000,000, the gain to the country by depriving the Republicans of control would seem to be much greater; but this gain has still to be realized.

There seems to be still some uncertainty as to the actual amount of the appropriations, and we do not vouch for the correctness of the *Tribune's* figures. Taking them as correct, however, the Democrats need not fear the popular judgment upon them. The *Tribune* actually reproaches the Democrats for reducing the "miscellaneous" items from $7,000,000, their amount under Republican management, to $800,000. The wider the publication of such charges as this, the better for the Democrats and the better for the country. As to the other work of Congress, it has not been of special importance.

THE TYRANNY OF "LABOR."

WE have heard a great deal of late from demagogues about the tyranny of Capi-

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tal. It is high time for the public to realize the tyranny which "Labor" is establishing in this country. The new despotism is that of the "Union," or "Organized Labor." A small percentage of the men employed in any industry form an association, nominally for mutual improvement and benefit. This union proceeds to lay down rules for the regulation not only of its own members, but of all other laborers and of employers. It decides what the rate of wages and the number of hours ought to be, and serves notice upon all concerned of its decision. It establishes a code of rules to regulate the conduct of its members and their relations with their employers, and it permits no violation of this code. It determines what shall constitute fidelity, industry, and proper subordination on the part of an employee, and it will allow no member to be discharged for unfaithfulness, laziness, or insubordination unless the union holds him to be guilty. It asserts a monopoly of the labor market, and will allow no man who does not belong to a union to do a job of work if the union has thrown it up. It resorts to boycotting, abuse, violence, and even murder, in order to "assert its power."

The slaveholder of the South in antebellum days enforced his rule through an overseer. The place of the overseer in this new form of servitude is taken by "the walking delegate." The walking delegate is a man who receives four or five dollars a day for doing nothing except make trouble between the employer and his employees. As he must make some pretence of earning his pay, he never means to allow a long time to elapse without making some trouble. The *Herald* of Thursday gave this picture of the walking delegate, as drawn by the Secretary of the Board of such delegates the day before:

> "They are only common, every-day workingmen, and their careers have consisted in handling their tools of trade. Each delegate is boss of his own men until meeting night, and then all hands are liable to jump on him and make him very tired. Between meetings his word is law. He can order any man under him to strike at any time, and the latter must obey without a question. The walking delegate goes round from building to building in course of construction, and if his eagle eye sees anything going wrong—non-union men at work, for instance, or boycotted material—he applies the thumbscrews at once."

The intolerable nature of this tyranny has never been made so clear as this summer. The case of the Grand Central Hotel on Broadway is a typical one, which deserves careful attention. Tilly Haynes, a Boston hotel-keeper, some time ago leased the Grand Central, and came to this city to expend $100,000 in the work of renovation, of which fully three-fourths was to go for labor. He made terms with his men which were mutually satisfactory. Work had hardly been begun, however, when the walking delegate appeared and demanded that the men should work only eight hours a day, instead of nine. Mr. Haynes acceded. A week later the walking delegate came round again, and said that some of the carpenters were working for $3.25 a day, and that they must be paid $3.50. This demand also was yielded to. A few days later the delegate informed Mr. Haynes that he had two stairbuilders from Boston, and that, although these men were union men, they could not work unless they had their union tickets changed, and paid the fee for working in this city. This trouble was settled by the return of the offenders to Boston.

The next incident is told as follows:

> "While the men were at work, the walking delegates entered the building and walked about through it at their pleasure, taking down the workmen's names and asking if they belonged to the union. One of the carpenters replied: 'None of your business.' The next day the delegate met the men when they came to work, and told them a strike had been ordered. Some of the men shed tears and said their families were suffering, but all obeyed. Mr. Haynes next received a visit from the 'Grand Council,' who informed him that their delegates must be respected. After consultation the Council agreed that the man who had insulted their delegate and the rest of the men might go back to work, but the man must by Saturday become a full member of the union. Notwithstanding this, when the men came to work the next morning, the delegate declared that not one should go to work until the man who had insulted him was discharged. The difficulty was finally compromised by the man being given his wages in order that he might immediately go and pay his dues and become a member of the union. It was three days, however, before he could get himself into regular standing, and during this time none of the men were permitted to work."

This was by no means the end of Mr. Haynes's troubles with the walking delegate. He had made a contract with a Boston firm to put in some new marble, and on learning this the delegate for the third time made the men quit work, though, upon Mr. Haynes's assurance that no marble from Boston was actually being laid at that time, they were permitted to resume work. Then Mr. Haynes learned that the delegates were going about among the men collecting one dollar from each for allowing them to work. When the marble from Boston arrived, the delegates refused to allow it to be unloaded, and when Mr. Haynes sought the protection of the police, the delegates called out all the carpenters and painters. Then the representatives of the steam-fitters told Mr. Haynes that he would have to send his engineer back to Boston, and on his refusal the union fitters were made to stop work.

By this time Mr. Haynes decided that he had suffered enough from the tyranny of the walking delegate, and he decided to employ no more men who were the slaves of such delegates. He secured a full force of non-union men, whom he finds better workmen than the union men, and who are not at the beck and call of any loafer who calls himself a walking delegate. From eight to a dozen of these loafers spend the day watching the front and rear of the hotel, and constantly insult and annoy the workers. For doing this each delegate receives from the unions $4.50 a day and his expenses.

We have told this story in detail because it is a typical one, and because it is only from such details that the public can comprehend the intolerable nature of this despotism. It is a patriotic service which Mr. Haynes rendered the community when he raised the standard of revolt. There are signs that the builders and contractors contemplate following his example, as the only way of securing relief from their troubles, and they will deserve no sympathy if they fail to do so.

CONGRESSMAN OATES'S REPORT.

It is refreshing to read an official report on the Homestead affair which tells the truth from beginning to end and is not tinged with demagogism in any part. Such seems to be the character of the report drawn up by Mr. Oates, Chairman of the House Committee appointed to investigate the Homestead trouble. The report contained too much truth to be acceptable to the other members of the Committee; so it seems probable that the Chairman will be in a minority of one. Whether there will be any such thing as a majority report is not yet known. Whether there be such a thing or not, and however widely it may differ from the report of the Chairman, nothing can detract from the force of the latter, or prevent it from carrying the weight which belongs to official deliverances on public questions.

We take notice, first, of Mr. Oates's concluding paragraph, which says that Congress has no power over the questions involved in the Homestead troubles. The phase of the trouble which led to the appointment of this committee was the presence of the Pinkerton men and the conflict which ensued. It was thought by some well-intending people that Congress had jurisdiction over the subject-matter. Mr. Oates tells us that there is nothing in the laws of Pennsylvania to prevent Mr. Frick from employing men from other States to protect the property under his care, although he thinks that it was unwise to do so in the manner and at the time when he did. He ought to have appealed to the Sheriff first, and waited to see what that official would or could do. Mr. Frick took the course which a business man would naturally take. He anticipated that the Sheriff's movements would be sluggish, so he took steps to protect the property in any event. He entered into early negotiations with the Pinkertons, calculating to have the men at Homestead about the time that the Sheriff ought to be there with an adequate force but probably would not be. This, Mr. Oates thinks, was an error of judgment, although not an infraction of law, and here we think Mr. Oates is entirely right. The indignities and outrages perpetrated upon the Pinkerton men, he says, were a disgrace to civilization. It required some moral courage to say this at a time when most people, including the major part of the Senators and Representa-

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tives who have said anything about the Pinkertons, were denouncing them as hired assassins, Thugs, and even as traitors to their country. Mr. Oates adds another obvious truth, that if it was lawful for the Pinkerton men to go to Homestead for the purpose of protecting the works, it was unlawful for anybody to oppose their landing, and that all who did so are answerable to the law.

Touching the question of wages, Mr. Oates holds that the company has the right, in equity and good-conscience, to a part of the saving effected by improved machinery. By this is meant that rates of wages, when paid on the basis of so much per ton, might be equitably reduced when the amount of labor which enters into a ton is considerably lessened. At the same time he thinks that Mr. Frick's method of dealing with this question was too harsh, and that a more diplomatic course on his part would have led to better results. This is a conclusion at which the public had already arrived, but it is said on the other side that the experience of the company with the leaders of the Amalgamated Association during a series of years had left no other course open than that which was followed. If the case is to be tried before the jury of the whole people, the specific acts of the Amalgamated leaders should be made known. But, of course, the company is under no obligation to submit the case to a town meeting or to an arbitration of any kind.

Finally, Mr. Oates tells the truth about arbitration, saying that the enactment of a satisfactory arbitration law is well-nigh impossible. The reason why it is impossible is, that there is no way to coerce either of the parties. Men cannot be compelled to work if they do not wish to. Employers cannot be compelled to make goods if they find no profit in doing so. The missing link in all arguments for compulsory arbitration is an inexhaustible fund out of which to pay the award of the disinterested tribunal. Give the arbitrators sufficient bread and beef to make good all losses which their verdicts involve, and the difficulty would disappear.

The fact that Congress has nothing to do with affairs of this sort is perhaps the most important announcement in the report. But we do not expect that Mr. Oates's remarks on this head will have any weight with Congress itself, so many members are eager to put themselves in evidence as friends of labor at every outbreak, and so many more are afraid to vote against any investigation which is heralded as being in the interest of labor. Mr. Oates is entitled to the thanks of the community, however, for daring to say the right word.

A TYPICAL PROTECTED INDUSTRY.

THERE are many reasons why the case of the Arlington Mills of Lawrence, Mass., deserves the prominence given it by the recent debate between Senators Vest and Allison. In the first place, Mr. Whitman, the Treasurer of this corporation, has invited the public to give attention to its affairs by causing his statement concerning it to be published in the *Congressional Record*, and by proclaiming that there are not many men in Massachusetts who would question his truthfulness or accuracy. In the second place, Mr. Whitman is understood to be the author of certain paragraphs in the McKinley tariff bill which are believed to have raised the duty upon cotton-warp fabrics manufactured by him from 15 to 30 per cent., or even more; the increase being claimed as a necessary compensation for the duties upon the wool used in these fabrics, but the statute being so worded, through Mr. Whitman's sagacity, as to grant the increased duty also upon the cotton warps. According to our calculations, the duties upon some such dress-goods as Mr. Whitman produces range from 80 to 120 per cent., but this also is a matter which will be better understood when Mr. Whitman makes the further explanation which the circumstances require.

Furthermore, Mr. Whitman, according to the statement printed in the *Record*, has said that the present tariff law ought to be satisfactory to all woollen-manufacturers, as every branch of the industry has been well cared for by it; that every man who clamored for the repeal or modification of this law was inimical to the industry; that he had put all he had into this industry, and that he expected to use all the power of which he was capable to prevent any tinkering with the present tariff. Under these circumstances, Mr. Whitman says, all that he asks is to be let alone. In other words, Mr. Whitman is anxious that the tax with which he is "proud to have been identified," which compels Americans to purchase their dress-goods from him, should not be disturbed, because he is extremely well satisfied with the gains which it enables him to make. We consider, however, that as Congress has been induced to tax the American people in this manner, for this purpose, and with this result, the people are entitled to know what these gains amount to. If there were no other reason for seeking this information, it would be enough that we should at last learn just how much protection a protected manufacturer regards as completely and permanently satisfactory.

After a careful examination of the speeches made in the Senate and of Mr. Whitman's letters and declarations upon the subject, we do not think that he has made out his claim to be regarded as unimpeachably truthful and accurate. Senator Vest, making use of a technically inaccurate expression, said that the Arlington Mills had declared last year a dividend of nearly 50 per cent. Mr. Whitman indignantly replied that this was absolutely false, that the dividend that year was 6 per cent., and that it had rarely exceeded that rate. But it appeared that what Senator Vest meant was not dividend, but balance of profit and loss, and that this had been reported to the State of Massachusetts for the year 1891 as some $932,000, the capital of the corporation being $2,000,000. It also appeared that Mr. Whitman had reported to his directors in 1890 that he had been their treasurer for twenty years, and that the average earnings had been 20.8 per cent. upon the capital. He added that the earnings the last year had been nearly three and one-half times those of the year before, and that the coming year was likely to be the most profitable one in the history of the company. In his last published interview his only reply to Senator Vest's allegation that the Arlington Mills had put $900,000 into their surplus in 1891 was, that the charge was false and malicious. As to the statement concerning average earnings, Mr. Whitman says that Senator Vest inferred from this that the net profits were equal to the sum named, whereas every business man knows that earnings and net profits are different things.

It can scarcely be denied that the impression naturally derived from Mr. Whitman's language is that the Arlington Mills put no such sum as $900,000 into their surplus in 1891, and that the net profits of the stockholders have been little more than 6 per cent. Indeed, he points out that these mills paid no dividend until 1877, eleven years after their organization, and that the average dividend since then has been between 6 and 7 per cent. It does not seem to us that a man who had stated to the stockholders that the average earnings of their mills were 20.8 per cent. is quite frank or accurate in giving the public the impression that these stockholders had received dividends of but 6 or 7 per cent. during little more than half the time that the mills had been in operation. Mr. Whitman says that in 1869 the stockholders paid into the treasury of the mills a sum equal to the whole amount of its capital stock, $240,000, to make it good. It seems that the capital stock is now $2,000,000. We understand that in 1886 it was $1,000,000. Does Mr. Whitman wish the public to get the impression that the present capital stock represents the amount of cash paid in by the stockholders? If this is not the case, we think that a man who prides himself upon his reputation for truthfulness and accuracy should explain to the public what part of his capital and surplus consists of accumulated earnings, and what percentage of the capital paid in in money these accumulated earnings represent.

Mr. Whitman also, in the letter in which he denounces Senator Vest's statements as false, says: "There has been no strike at the Arlington Mills of recent date," and no cut-down in wages since the passage of the McKinley Law. It seems that at the end of last March the Boston *Herald* reported a strike at the Arlington Mills. The *American*, a Republican sheet published at Lawrence, spoke at the same time of "another strike" as occurring at

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these mills. We have no space to go into the details of these strikes, which are reported by these papers to have been caused by reductions in wages, and one of which seems to have occasioned the interposition of the State Board of Arbitration, and to have been followed by the discharge of a number of workmen. We admit that the accounts of these strikes, printed at the time in the Boston and Lawrence papers, were probably exaggerated, as such accounts usually are. But when Mr. Whitman alleges that no strike has taken place at the Arlington mills of recent date, and appeals to his reputation for truthfulness and accuracy to confirm his statement, we are obliged to say that, considering the statements which we have here reviewed, we find it less credible that two newspapers should have minutely described events which never occurred, than that Mr. Whitman should have failed to be strictly truthful or strictly accurate.

COAL WASTE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

MAUCH CHUNK, July 23, 1892.

A FEW days' systematic driving through the anthracite region of Eastern Pennsylvania gives one a vivid and oppressive sense of the reckless waste with which the present generation is using up the reserve stores of coal that have so long awaited the advent of man in this desolate region. The river is black with dust; unsightly heaps of coal-waste vie with the mountains themselves in magnitude all over the area, while preparations are in progress on every hand to increase the output of the mines already opened, and to open others whence the greatest product can be obtained with least expense. If anything can be more desolate than a deserted coal village, it is a coal village that is not deserted, where everything is black with dirt, where the children of tender years seem to revel in it, and where children of larger growth join their mothers in spending the long hours of the day in picking over the waste heaps and carrying the saved lumps of coal to the nearest merchant to barter for the necessaries of life. Much as one is shocked with the labor of women and children in connection with the coal mines of Belgium, he will be even more so in some places in Pennsylvania.

The philosophical problems forced upon one's attention by the waste of coal in Eastern Pennsylvania are staggering, whether he try to reconcile it with the benevolence of the Creator, or whether he attempt to prescribe a proper course of human conduct with respect to it. First and foremost is the fact that it is not man, but Nature herself, who has been most regardless of the waste. Without question the coal deposits originally covered the whole area from Blue Ridge to the bituminous coal-fields of the western part of the State. But the crumpling up of the earth's crust which elevated the region above the sea, occurred so long before the beginning of the modern era of civilization, or even the advent of man upon the earth, that ninety-nine-one-hundredths of all the original deposits in the central and eastern parts of the State have been removed by the slow but ceaseless activity of Nature's erosive agencies.

All the anthracite coal of the State (which is nearly all in the world) is now that contained in scattered areas in the eastern part, amounting to two or three hundred square miles. These areas are in several long synclinal or trough-like basins which constituted the bottoms of the folds into which the crust of the earth was pressed by the forces that elevated the Appalachian Mountains. The upper, or anticlinal, portions of the folds have disappeared, with all the wealth of stored-up energy which was originally upon their sides and summits. In repeated instances the unreflecting tourist, in an hour's ride on the cars, passes across the base of an anticlinal arch of carboniferous age which formerly rose higher than the Alps, but which now is so completely worn away that its place is occupied by a depression. In general, where were once the mountains we now find the valleys, while the bottoms of the ancient valleys are the mountains of to-day. Such has been the wastefulness of Nature. The problem presented is insoluble.

Nor does the apparently necessary wastefulness of man offer a much easier solution. At the present time the most improved processes of mining do not save one-half the amount contained in the areas mined, and these processes are from 15 to 20 per cent. more economical than those of ten years ago. It is not alone the vast heaps of mingled slack and comminuted shale so disfiguring to the coal regions which constitute this waste, but to a considerable extent it is the pillars of anthracite which have to be left in the mines to prevent the roof from falling in upon the workmen. In both these forms of waste, however, it is possible for the optimistic theorist to see blessings for the future. More thrifty and economical generations than the present may glean in these fields, and live for centuries upon that which this generation could not afford to obtain. As the women and children eke out a tolerable livelihood by picking over the waste heaps of the past decade, so in a more systematic way coming generations may extract like good from the discarded waste of the present time. A less hopeful view is to be taken of the inevitable wastefulness of present modes of combustion, in which far more heat goes up the chimney than is converted into economic uses. But human nature is such that it is useless in the present stage of the world to urge any marked reform in this respect, for the general impression seems to be that there is an inexhaustible store of coal at our command, or that, if coal fails, something else will be discovered to take its place. At any rate the day of evil to the human race appears so far distant that present economy for the sake of problematical good to posterity cannot be made to seem an urgent duty. Many are, however, waking up to the fact that the problem is nearer at hand and more urgent than anybody had heretofore supposed. When one sits by one of the great arteries of the coal traffic, as I now do, and hears and sees on two rival roads the almost endless trains of loaded cars pass by in one direction, and the ceaseless procession of empty ones return, he gets a new sense of the figures which express the rate at which our supply of coal is being depleted.

The growth of modern civilization is coördinate with the consumption of coal. At the present time no other source of power which man utilizes is to be compared with it. To our coal mines we resort for more than nine-tenths of all the power which runs our factories, propels our steamers and railroad trains, and furnishes our stores of electricity. Gen. Wistar estimates that if all the water fall in Pennsylvania was utilized with a head of 150 feet, it would not furnish one-tenth the power now derived from steam in the State. Following the example of calculations made in England a year ago, of which I gave an account in these columns, the same authority has endeavored to get an approximate estimate of the date at which our own coal fields will be exhausted. The result is almost as startling with reference to America as that with reference to Great Britain. At the present rate of increase of consumption the English coal supply will begin to fail, and its use become economically unprofitable, in about half a century. In America the evil day can apparently be delayed only about a century and a half, or perhaps three centuries. Any greater delay than that would involve such a check in our industrial development as to amount almost to a catastrophe.

At the present time the civilized nations are in a condition of industrial and commercial exuberance resting on a basis much resembling that of the lately popular endowment societies during the first few years of their existence. The consumption of coal in the United States was twice as great in 1890 as it was in 1880. Such is the capacity of modern mechanical and industrial machinery that this use is likely to increase in geometrical ratio until nearly the time of the total exhaustion of the coal fields. Still, there is no occasion to despair of the future of the race. Necessity is the mother of invention. Localities may lose their relative importance. The star of empire may pass from the great coal-producing countries to the arid regions of the earth, where concentrated rays of sunshine may be made to drive the busy wheels of industry, or to the regions where the trade winds or the tides now waste their energies in unproductive labor; but, in learning the economy which will eventually be necessary, the world will perhaps have opportunity to develop a higher order of virtues than now seems possible amid the fresh discoveries of so many of Nature's reserved stores.

Perhaps also we were wrong in saying that Nature's waste of coal presents an insoluble problem, for in one other respect also there is an apparent compensation both in Nature's wastefulness of the coal deposits and in man's. Gen. Wistar does, indeed, after careful calculations, forebode evil to present forms of animal life in the vast addition to the stores of carbonic-acid gas consequent upon the present rapid consumption of coal. He estimates that when the coal is all consumed, the atmosphere will be so laden with this poisonous product that only such unwieldy animals as characterized the Mesozoic period can flourish in it. But from this gloomy presentiment we are relieved by that benevolent wastefulness of Nature which has removed the larger part of the original coal deposit from our reach. The vast quantities of carbon which have been carried into the depths of the sea by erosive agencies have so mingled with the ooze at the bottom that there is no probability that it will ever be resurrected to add to the pollution of the atmosphere by combustion. In this there has been a comprehensible and positive gain to man in the apparent wastefulness of Nature. Having cleared the atmosphere once, both her own waste of the product and that of man combine to prohibit subsequent pollution. The purity of the atmosphere is at any rate secure. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

WITH BERNHEIM AT NANCY.

NANCY, June, 1892.

ACCORDING to the Nancy view, there is nothing abnormal about the hypnotic sleep. It

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is normal sleep artificially produced, and the method of producing sleep artificially—suggestion—is nothing more than a skilful and professional use of the hitherto unrecognized fact that our normal life is full of responses suggested to us by our surroundings. Of our usual surroundings, persons are the most important elements; in other words, our social environment, our living *milieu*, gives constant tone and support to our lives and aids our development. The much-talked-of fact that hystero-epileptic patients are most hypnotizable, simply means that they are most suggestible, because of their characteristic neuroses; but all men are suggestible, nevertheless, and the difference is one of degree.

On this theory the passes, rubs, magnets, etc., of the Paris school become so much machinery, merely, of suggestion—concrete signs to the patient of what is expected of him; and he goes to sleep, wakes, passes from stage to stage, etc., because it is suggested, not because he is rubbed or magnetized. When the Paris men find a certain physical touch or rub necessary to induce a given phenomenon, it is simply because they have themselves taught the patient to wait for that particular signal; for this reason the "signals" are in reality a part of the hypnotic manifestation in those patients who have been thus brought up. This view, it is evident, requires support from the ordinary facts of the reactive consciousness, and it is to the exhibition of them, to the exhibition of the analogies afforded by phenomena of imitation, natural somnambulism, contagion of opinions, etc., that the books of Bernheim are in part devoted. And in establishing this point, a contribution of the first importance has been made to psychological theory, whether we accept suggestion as an adequate theory of hypnotism or not. We are but now beginning to understand the profound meaning which may be imported into the expressions, "environment," "social tissue," "solidarity," etc., hitherto employed with partial understanding of this meaning. The lamented Guyau must have been right in claiming that suggestion was to be one of the corner-stones of our reconstructed theory of primary education.

But, true as this is, the Nancy men seem to run into two extremes. To bring normal mental reactions and hypnotic reactions under the same formula, they deny some of the most characteristic aspects of each. "Will?" says Dr. Bernheim. "What is will? There is no such thing as will—it is all suggestion!" Now, analytical psychology means something very definite by volition. "Trance? There is no such thing as hypnotic trance—it is sleep, normal sleep." But who has been able to put a normal sleeper through the performances of the commonest hypnotic somnambules? True, there are sleep-walkers in many homes; but it may be a truer interpretation to say that they are no longer normal sleepers. No doubt great service has been rendered by the Nancy men in showing the artificiality of the Paris categories; but the true explanation of hypnotic sleep is probably yet to be advanced, just as a true explanation of natural sleep is yet to be advanced.

The patients in the hospital at Nancy seem to illustrate Dr. Bernheim's theory. They go off quietly into a deep, lethargic sleep. Somnambulism is comparatively rare, being developed by suggestions of walking, etc. Bernheim's manner is imperative and authoritative to the last degree. His first and last word to a patient is, "Dors, dors absolument!" He generally closes the eyes with his hand, then doubles up the patient's fists and starts them to revolving round each other in front of the patient's face, the whole arm being actively engaged in this circular movement. As soon as the movement lags, he seizes the fists and starts them again vigorously, at intervals straightening out the arms quickly to test their tendency to catalepsy. If the patient opens the eyes, or shows any signs of persistent wakefulness under this treatment, it is repeated more vigorously, accompanied by vocal expostulations and commands. Nearly everybody succumbs! It must be added, also, that Bernheim now claims to be able to carry normal sleepers over into the hypnotic state without waking them up.

The question of "criminal suggestion" is at present uppermost at Nancy. Prof. Liégeois of the department of law, formerly known as a political economist, has studied the legal aspects of hypnotism and written several important papers. In a recent article on criminal suggestion in the *Revue Philosophique*, he insists upon the reality of the phenomenon, and points out its great danger to society and the State. He finds that some somnambules—a relatively small number—are liable to a so-called "second state," in which criminal suggestions take certain and immediate effect. By this hypothesis, which rests upon frequently reported experiments in the hospitals, he explains several cases of crime committed, as he believes, under influence—cases which have agitated French society and nonplussed the legal profession. For example, he analyzes and explains the famous Bompard case. He promises in another article to explain in the same way several other criminal cases which have remained mysteries in the records of the courts. Liégeois proposes, in view of the facts, that a hypnotic official be appointed before whom all children shall be brought. If a child be found relatively unsuggestible, well and good. But if liable to hypnotic suggestion, the official's business should be to suggest that no one else, as long as the child should live, should be able to hypnotize him. This suggestion would take effect, and the child would then be free from all such influences in the future.

On the other hand, many deny the possibility of criminal suggestion altogether. While not disputing the reported cases in which the somnambule does under command what would ordinarily be criminal, they claim that he knows all the time that the performance is a sham. He not only gets the suggestion, consciously given, of the act, but he also gets the suggestion, unintended by the operator, that in this case he is playing a part with others in a farce. When we consider the enormous exaltation of the faculties shown by many somnambules, and reflect that just such an hypothesis of subconscious suggestion is one of our last resorts in explaining a great number of facts which look like thought-transferrence, we begin to see the reasonableness of this position. It is argued with force by Delbœuf in a recent issue of the same review.

Yet there are one or two senses in which it is clear the phrase "criminal suggestion" cannot be used. It is about demonstrated that there are no post-hypnotic criminal suggestions—that is, suggestions made to the patient of criminal acts to be performed after he has been restored to his normal life. Suggestions of acts which are morally colorless may be post-hypnotically realized; but when a suggestion has moral coloring, the patient may deliberate upon it in quite a normal way and resist it. Again, it must not be understood that the patient becomes a criminal or that his moral nature is even temporarily debased when under the influence of a criminal suggestion. On either of the hypotheses mentioned above, this is not the case. The question is, Does he perform the act knowing that it is not really a criminal act, and consenting because he knows it, or does he perform it as an automaton would, because he is temporarily a non-moral machine? In view of the conflicting evidence now before us, and the probability of new light in the near future, it is just as well to suspend judgment on this important question.

The Nancy men have a very practical test to propose, one which offers an heroic opportunity to an enthusiastic experimenter. A man of straw was put to bed, in one of the experiments, and a somnambule, in a highly suggestible state, was told to go stealthily from an adjoining room and stab his friend, the occupant of the bed, using a knife then put into his hand. We are told that he took the knife, that his face became dark and angry, and that, with stealthy tread and soft, he sneaked into his friend's bedroom, and stabbed the man of straw. Now, say the *savants* of Nancy, if any one in Paris does not believe this, let him come and take the place of the man of straw! As yet no one has accepted the challenge. The reason of their backwardness, as one of those concerned in Paris intimated to me, may be that they know how cordially they are hated in Nancy, and are well aware that if any one should play the man of straw, his professional friends in that city would take great pains to see that the somnambule understood his business!

The wards of the Nancy hospital present a very remarkable appearance since the introduction of hypnotism as a therapeutic agent. Bernheim and his assistants and students, perhaps fifteen or twenty, go through the halls inquiring after this patient and that, putting this one to sleep in order to banish a pain from his head, leg, or side, commanding a semi-paralytic to use his limbs, working hard to overcome the resistance of a new-comer. Here sits a girl with arms akimbo, left for a period in a cataleptic state; there stands a sluggish somnambule; and further on the voice of the master is heard urging a reply from a man who is not conscious enough to frame one. Then he goes to his private reception room, where new cases are brought in. A mother brings her child with pains in the feet, an old man comes with a crick in his back, headaches in endless variety abound, and coughs *ad infinitum*. Each patient is questioned carefully, then told to sit and remove hat or bonnet. Remonstrances are vain. Eyes are closed, fists set to turning, and in all the noise of come and go, question and answer, one by one they fall aleep. Then the proper suggestion is made to each one: "Your head is well," "Your back shall never ache again." "Your legs are as sound as mine," iterated and reiterated. Then they are awakened. Do their pains persist? Then they must go over again, *nolens volens*, into another sleep. When they leave, they say they are cured, and Bernheim believes they tell the truth; but on grounds stronger, certainly, than their word alone or the fact that they do not return to the hospital.

Indeed, the therapeutic value of hypnotism is believed in at Nancy as nowhere else, perhaps. The English translation of Bernheim's 'Suggestive Therapeutics' is, of course, well known in America. Patients are taken just as they come from the city streets into the hospital and thrown, as a matter of course, into the hypnotic trance. Some of the reported cases

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of cure are certainly remarkable enough—if they are cures! The Nancy physicians ought to know. Yet elsewhere doctors remain sceptical. Perhaps it is true that their scepticism renders their own efforts less successful; for in this mysterious realm, more than elsewhere, it seems to be faith that removes mountains. Perhaps others cannot cure because they do not know how. Be this as it may, let the Nancy cures go on; and if they finally demonstrate the difference between scientific caution and professional prejudice—demonstrate, further, the primary influence of the moral over the physical—demonstrate, finally, that moral environment is the tremendous thing, that force of character and influence is in some way relative to active belief, and that reality is in great measure what we choose and will with all our might—then the physicians will no doubt join the psychologists in saying, Amen!

J. Mark Baldwin.

LETTERS OF IPPOLITO PINDEMONTE.

Italy, June 25, 1892.

"Felice te che il regno ampio dei venti,
Ippolito, a' tuoi verdi anni correva."

sang Foscolo to Pindemonte anent his long sojourn in England, France, and Germany during the eventful years that closed the eighteenth century. During this tour the brilliant young Veronese wrote constantly to his friend the Contessa Isabella Teotochi Albrizzi, who was enamoured of *la belle France* and of all that related to the people with whom her nature sympathized more than with the Italian. The Italian cities through which he passes, even his native Verona, do not furnish him with any very interesting topics, but as soon as he touches Geneva he is enchanted. "Though the city is not particularly beautiful, the neighborhood and the lake are superb. Lately I made a tour in the mountains of Savoy; there and on the Lake of Geneva Nature has shown all that she can unite of the beautiful, the terrible, and graceful. You know how natural scenery moves me. I am always hungry for the country when mewed up in cities, and can never have enough of fresh air, trees, mountains, and green fields." But the balls and the French opera enchant him equally, and the society in which he mixes is of the pleasantest, as he meets "many persons of distinguished merit, and the general culture is above mediocrity." He begs Isabella to tell him of her amusements, of her health, and of her studies, and especially of all that is happening in Venice.

Pindemonte arrived in Paris in the spring of 1789, just as the famished multitude in all the cities (not only in *les bonnes villes*) and in the country districts had elected the members of the États-Généraux. He was present on "the great day," the 4th of May, when the 1,200 deputies, the King, Queen, Court, after listening to the "Veni Creator" in Notre Dame, went in procession "with all Paris" to Saint Louis; Mirabeau present, Sieyès absent. The Assembly opened, no longer in the King's château, but in the immense Salle des Menus. The speeches of the King and of Necker dwelt entirely on the virtues and the abnegation of the superior classes who had so nobly consented to share their privileges with the "lower orders." The King and the nobles retaining their hats, the third estate uncovered, on which the King, to prevent "these airs," took off his own hat also.

"The events that are happening in Paris are worthy of imitation by other nations. I shall always congratulate myself on being present at the opening of the Assembly. It will be difficult ever again to witness a spectacle which, for the aim in view and the form, should prove as grand, interesting, and beautiful. It is true we have revolts, rebellions, killed and wounded; but all these are minor matters, say the politicians, if we succeed in gaining a constitution, which half France maintains does not exist."

Pindemonte remains in Paris throughout July and August, and to his friend who writes alarmed for his safety, he answers:

"I am very grateful for your anxiety, but really the situation here is not so critical for us as the Englishman who hurried from Paris to Venice has led you to believe. His own fears have exaggerated the circumstances. I can't say that a sojourn in Paris at the present moment is void of peril—many visitors have fled; but curiosity, and the delight of witnessing a great revolution in a great country, are such powerful incentives to remain that I have not once thought of quitting the city. At present no more heads are being cut off. Of course all is in confusion, but this is inevitable when the old order is destroyed and the new régime not yet established. Chaos is terrible but indispensable when a Government is to be utterly changed. If the new constitution be not *ottima*, it will be the fault of the Assembly, which is now omnipotent, seeing that the King has no control over it. I do not write more as I suppose you will read the news in the *Gazette*, or learn all particulars from your friends, which is the method that best pleases you if I mistake not. Towards the end of the month I leave for London."

And from London Pindemonte writes on the 4th of September. He "has arrived safely despite the malefactors who now infest France." Londoners are all in the country, and he goes there also, expecting to enjoy himself, "even without the spectacle of a revolution. You will, though you don't read the newspapers, have heard of all the horrible scenes in France; but probably you do not know that the spectators who enjoyed them most were of your own sex." Of course he chooses the most fashionable resort, and his next letter is dated:

"Bath, October 4, 1789.

"I write to you from one of the most beautiful and at this season one of the gayest cities in Europe. People come here in numbers to take the baths and drink the waters, but the majority come for the gayeties which abound here, and I am, thanks be to heaven, among these. Balls are among the most popular amusements, and you will hardly believe the good figure that I cut in the throng. Alas, to dance a minuette well is not the same thing as winning a battle, and to shine in a contredance not the same as giving a good constitution to France. Apropos of France, does it not seem to you that your French people are most unjustly accused? True it is that they have displayed great ferocity, but any other people whatsoever would in similar circumstances have shown equal ferocity; the want of bread and the fear of famine renders the gentlest populations furious. Now that the French King, to save his civil list and pensions, has sacrificed his silver buckles, peace and calm seem to be restored to Paris. The destinies of France depend now on the Assembly. No obstacles can arise save in its bosom. Should it succeed in establishing a wise Government, no praise will be too great. You know that the English nation only during the course of many centuries and by dint of long struggles secured the liberties which they now enjoy, nor have they shown much wisdom or prudence throughout the many circumstances that have led to the situation in which they now find themselves. France, on the contrary, has made her great journey in a single step."

Pindemonte remained nearly a year in England—"sufficient time," writes Foscolo, "to become familiar with her literature. Some of his poems dedicated to Englishmen who became his friends, prove the enthusiastic admiration which this illustrious Italian felt for their country." English parks were his delight, and the beautiful cemeteries inspired a poem which Foscolo quotes with praise.

"My health is excellent," he writes to Isabella in April, 1790; "the climate and methods of English life suit me admirably. I have collected some English books. Gray I long since owned. It is in my little library at Venice, and is at your service if you mean to continue your study of the English language. Many of your friends will dissuade you, but perhaps this is a reason to persevere. Gray has not written much, but all that he has composed is excellent. After the 'Elegy,' his poem entitled 'The Bard' pleases me best. The subject treats of a tradition that Edward the First, after his conquest of Wales, ordered all poets to be killed because their songs excited the people to rebellion. Gray supposes that one of these bards or singers beholds from the summit of a mountain Edward's army marching in the plain, and, seeing the massacre of his countrymen, poetically curses the tyrant and predicts the misfortunes that will befall him and his descendants. The bard then flings himself into the sea. The argument, as you see, is a fine and grand one, and the treatment is worthy of the subject. As to Richardson, I am sorry to tell you that he is not so much esteemed by the English as in my opinion he ought to be. Perhaps he is less read because he treats of manners and customs that have passed away in great part, but he represents human nature which exists always. I don't know whether you have read a novel by Miss Burney, called 'Cecilia.' Here you have the England of to-day faithfully depicted."

In November he writes from Vienna, where he does not seem "at home" as in England:

"Most just are your words about Alfieri, and if you come to know him intimately, you will become ever more his admirer because you will better understand the gifts which adorn his writings. I know no such lover of the right, such an enemy of all that has the least taint of injustice. Then how docile he is, though he knows his own powers; delicate and graceful qualities unite in his heart with strong and virile virtues. His two Brutuses also seem to me greater than on the first reading. No other writer who has treated the same subject, has placed in such strong and clear relief the insuperable necessity of the one to kill his adoptive father, of the other to cause his children to be killed. 'The hand that trembled so it could not wound' (Act V. of 'Brutus the Second'): what a new and marvellous inspiration!"

France attracts Pindemonte again, and he next writes from Marseilles—

"*bien jolie* and the port superb. The country is tranquil on the whole. It seems to me that the provinces are much more aristocratic than Paris. . . . I find a great difference between the culture of the provinces and of the capital; this is more of a commercial than a literary city. True, there is here an Academy of Sciences, but the members are dispersed on account of the troubled times, justifying the proverb, 'Timid as a philosopher.' The Abbé Raynal is here, and is worth a whole academy; but he is very old and begins to *radoter*. I see him often, though, because the *radotage* of such as he is better than the wisdom of most. Were it not for fear of wearying you, I should tell you of Avignon and Vaucluse, and of Petrarch, whom I seem to see there always; and of Nîmes and her superb antiquities. What a delightful sensation it is to come from the North to the South, and to find spring and almost summer in October. At Munich such leaves as were still on the trees were yellow and dead, but as you come South all is green and bright and living."

In June, 1793, he writes: "I fear that we shall have *your* Frenchmen in Italy if the Emperor does not send reinforcements, and if the English fleet tarries." From Florence in 1795 he writes of Alfieri:

"He is in good health; is not writing anything, but studying the classics, Greek and Latin, as if he were beginning his education. Singular man! the greatest genius that I have ever known. . . . You wish him to write a poem, but do you think that the creative faculty is exhaustless? Nineteen tragedies and

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many other things not yet published, are not these likely to have exhausted even his productive faculties, at least in part? I wish you were here to see his tragedies performed. Yesterday 'Saul' was given, and you would have been converted, as was Zacco, who denies, however, that it is a tragedy. I do not speak of the effect it produced on me only, but on the whole audience, though the actors were poor. 'Saul' is the favorite tragedy of the Florentines."

Pindemonte seems always travelling, and the Countess is often on the wing, so that the letters, which extend over thirty years, are extremely interesting, giving a picture of the famous men of the time, of their literary works, of the success and failure of these; but it is remarkable how little interest the poet takes in the politics of the time: of the fate of the kingdom of Italy, of the cession of Venice to Austria, he seems to take little note.

"You are out of spirits," he writes in 1797, 11 Vendemmiale, from Venice. "First of all, war is not decided on—on the contrary, the chances seem for peace. But let us suppose that war breaks out: from a political point of view I see no reason to regret it, as the consequences (not the immediate and transitory, but the permanent and decisive) will be beneficial to us. From a humanitarian point of view, tell me what difference there is between 50,000 individuals whom you do not know killed in Friuli and Carinthia, and the numberless Romans who perished centuries ago on the battlefields of Pharsalia and Philippi? Did you ever write pathetic letters to any Ippolito for those Romans? You have seen some 300 sick, and the sight has perturbed you; but if you had remained in Venice, you would not have seen them. And why should I flee from Venice because I hear of disasters beyond the Brenta? You say that this is no time for writing tragedies, and this you say because you know that the tragedy which I am now composing causes the time to pass as swiftly as when I pass it with you.

"Still, your letter is welcome for the tidings that you mean to pass the winter in Venice. Your delineation of the character of Cervoni is true to life. It is not true that you are losing your sight; your eyes penetrate to the depths of men at first sight. Salute the brave and virtuous general for me. Gianni is working at his poem, but the liberty which is to beatify Italy is still on the Alps, whence he beholds its rays illuminating Rome, penetrating the sepulchres, and awakening Cicero, who sends back an oration to liberty. Does the idea please you? will it please Franceschini? Adieu, my beautiful and amiable Isabella. Keep yourself beautiful, amiable, and the friend of PINDEMONTE."

In 1805: "I did not send you from Verona the plan of Bonaparte's route because I thought that the motives which aroused your curiosity no longer existed. Here it is: Cremona, Brescia, the camp, Mantua, Modena, Bologna, Parma. He will reach this city [Verona], not on Saturday, as was announced, but on Sunday. In his speech to the Legislature which I have just read in the papers, he says that he hopes to preserve peace on the Continent. But he privately assured the Minister Felici that he feared war to be inevitable." In this letter, without even a fresh paragraph, he continues: "If you were enchanted with Mme. de Staël, she was no less so with you. She arrived here Monday morning, and at once wrote a courteous note asking me to visit her directly, as she could remain only a few hours. I went and found her at dinner; she begged me to accompany her to the amphitheatre in her carriage, whence she started for Brescia. She wished to visit my apartment, and found my physiognomy, I fancy, very different from the portrait in my works."

Foscolo comes in for some kindly criticism; at the same time Pindemonte tells Isabella that she is prejudiced "on account of his disapproval of the French poets and of Delille especially;" that Foscolo thinks well of her 'Portraits of Celebrated Men,' barring certain errors of diction which Pindemonte had already corrected. For this expression of opinion Foscolo is reproached by Isabella, who seems to have been much spoiled by her various admirers. Later, Pindemonte says: "I am afraid Foscolo is vexed with me, as he has not written to me again. I have finished my 'Answer' to his 'Sepulchres,' but it needs much correction, and I have been much perturbed while composing it. You will be surprised that I have not yet read Monti's letter. These are not the brightest days of my life, and I grow indifferent to many things that used to interest me." But his joviality soon returns in the midst of his family of sisters and brothers, nephews and nieces, to whom he seems most sincerely attached.

The death of Alfieri stirs the philosopher. He follows eagerly all the signs of posthumous fame; tells Isabella that the mausoleum sent from Rome to Florence is to be placed in Santa Croce between the monuments of Galileo and Michelangelo, that the Countess of Albany receives half of the pension which the English Government paid to the Cardinal of York. The edition of Alfieri's works by Rosini will be magnificent: first are to come the published, then the unpublished poems; but Pindemonte expects greater things from Bettinelli's biography.

Of Canova there is frequent mention: "Landi the painter says that his works are each one greater than the last. I can hardly hope that Canova will come to Verona," he writes in 1810. "He will go to Ferrara, to Bologna, and to Florence. How noble and grand is his intention to erect that temple in his native city. I felt my soul soar and expand when I read that in your letter." He begs her not to frank her letters because they are rather heavier than usual. "I am richer than I need be, especially after the pension from the Institute, which was conferred on me quite spontaneously. I am working steadily on the 'Odyssey,' and striving for exactitude, keeping ever in mind that in original compositions one is responsible only for one's own errors, but in translating one becomes responsible for one's own, and also for those which we cause our authors to make. I am reading conscientiously Lambert's observations on the 'Iliad'—this as a Homerist."

Foscolo, in his essays on Italian literature, published first in England, writes:

"There are several versions of this poem [the 'Odyssey'] in Italian, but none have obtained that fortunate and complete success which the favorable vote of the *letterati* of a nation can alone insure. Probably Pindemonte preferred this second Homeric poem to the 'Iliad,' conscious that the characteristics of his style are not such as to render the energetic, imaginative, picturesque majesty which that divine poem holds. The first two cantos of the 'Odyssey' were published some time since, and Italy, delighted with the poetic attempt, impatiently awaited the whole, which has just appeared. The time that has elapsed is too brief for it to be seen what is the judgment of the *letterati* on its merits."

Pindemonte's 'Odyssey' went through four editions in his lifetime, and is still reprinted in the popular editions of the day.

In February, 1814, he writes: "The scene is changed. Yesterday, a little before noon, the Austrians entered Verona, and communications are reopened with Padua." And on the 1st of May: "To-day the consecration of the new King of France takes place at Rheims. The Emperor of Austria will return on the 15th. You will know what happened to Napoleon and his family. The Prince [Eugene Beauharnais] and the Princess are to leave Milan also to-day. It seems that no Italian save Assalini will accompany them to Munich." Often he dilates on the *finesse* of the Italian language. After saying that he "sospira" not for Paris, but for the Calle delle Ballotte in Venice, he adds: "Note that *sospirare*, which is the *regretter* of the French, though they say we have no equivalent for it, whereas we have another also, which is *piangere*. Here are both in two verses of Tasso's:

"'*Piangii* riposi di quest' umil vita,
E *sospirai* la mia perduta pace.'

Excuse the pedantry." In several letters he defends Lord Elgin for despoiling Greece of her marbles, saying that the Parthenon is going to ruin, and that in England they will be cared for; much to the disgust of Isabella, who, however, entertains the despoiler, as he is a celebrity.

Pindemonte takes up warmly the question then raging over Count Ugolino, not yet settled by the faculty:

"Niccolini has expounded a new opinion anent the canto. He insists that Ugolino ate up his children, and founds his belief in this fine act on Dante's line—

"'Poscia, più che il dolor, potè il digiuno.'

"Prof. Carmignani is of the same opinion, but another professor in the same University has arisen to confute them, and rightly too, in my opinion. I speak of Rosini. You can hardly believe the ferment in Tuscany caused by this controversy. I fear that Gargallo will enter the lists, and I say fear because I have reason to believe that he will not take the right side. . . . Rosini writes joyfully of the discovery made at Rome of an edition of Dante annotated by Tasso, and adds with infinite satisfaction that the publication of this treasure will be his last typographical labor. A new expositor of Dante has arisen in Piacenza: a grand assembly, a great crowd, great admiration. One would think that in Italy one had never heard of Dante before."

Again:

"Carmignani has republished his letter. He declares that there is at Pisa a very ancient picture in which Count Ugolino is depicted with a long beard hovering over the corpses of his sons in the act of devouring one already half unfleshed. For me this proves nothing. I hope that Gargallo will print nothing."

Nothing seems to us more surprising than that such a controversy should ever have arisen. Dante finds Ugolino with his teeth fixed in the nape of his arch-enemy, Archbishop Ruggieri, and promises that if he can prove reason for such atrocious vengeance he will do him justice in the upper world. And the still anguished father tells his harrowing story—how his four sons died one after the other in six days of hunger; how he for other three days hung over them, calling on them by name though dead; then, fasting more than sorrow killed him also.

Throughout 1827 and the first nine months of 1828 the letters continue in the same bright, vivid tone. The last letter, written in his own bold, clear handwriting, is from Verona on the 20th of October, 1828, and is one of the best, treating of certain pictures of Raphael which Toschi of Pavia is engraving; reminding Isabella that last year at this time he was with her in the city "che nel tranquillo mare curva si specchia"—his own description of Venice, "mirrored while bending o'er the tranquil sea." But on the 10th of November of the same year comes a letter in the handwriting of Lorenzo, his servant, dictated from Verona: "The slight fever which always promises to go never really abandons me, but let us hope for the best. Benassù is ill also;

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but I hope to see him to-morrow, as he is much better. I know nothing exactly about Casa Pompei. Lorenzo, my valet, reveres you. Remember me affectionately to Giuseppino. Addio!"

It was the last adieu. The "perfect and worthy gentleman" died within that month of November, 1828. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

LINTON'S VINDICATION OF PAINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review in the *Nation* some weeks ago of Mr. Conway's 'Life of Paine,' that book was spoken of as *the first serious defence of Paine*. I have not the exact words before me now, as I did not at the time feel called upon to notice a mistake scarcely concerning any one but myself. However, this week the mistake is repeated in the *Tribune*; and as it may go the round of the press, I would ask to be allowed to correct it where it first occurred.

More than fifty years ago, in 1840, I published in London a 'Life of Paine,' defending him from the then current calumnies since so continually repeated. I say nothing of any merit in my work, a book of fifty-four pages of 250 words, except that it was in earnest, and that it plainly, and with authority of personal friends of Paine then known to me, fully, particularly, and very distinctly met all the charges against him.

Fifty-two years ago may well account for the book being forgotten, and I know it has been long out of print; but for ten years at least it had a considerable sale, going through several editions. I only state so much, caring not to lose here in America the honor of having been the first so publicly to do justice to the character of Thomas Paine. W. J. Linton.

New Haven, Conn., August 6, 1892.

UNSECTARIAN THEOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An editorial paragraph in your issue of July 28 calls attention to the establishment of a non-sectarian School of Theology at Boulder, Colorado, as a "novelty worth attention." All that you say of it might with equal truth have been said of the Harvard Divinity School at any time within the past dozen years. This school was reorganized on a non-sectarian basis as long ago as 1879. At that time it made an appeal to its friends for a new endowment, with the express understanding not only that it should impose no denominational tests upon either instructors or students, for this it had long ceased to do, but that it should distinctly disregard the precedent which it had until then followed of looking usually to the Unitarian denomination for its professors, and should seek them wherever the best men were to be found. The money asked for was given within a few months upon this understanding. The first appointment made under the new endowment was that of a Baptist scholar. The next appointment was that of a Unitarian clergyman, and two others following soon after were, one of a Baptist clergyman, the other of a Unitarian layman, whose previous training had not been in the line of theology. The first vacancy was filled by one of the most distinguished scholars of the Orthodox Congregational denomination. During this period of twelve years, lecturers have been drawn from every shade of religious opinion. The only limitation upon absolute denominational indifference has been that all parties have agreed that the form of theology known as "Unitarian" shall always find a hearing in the school, and this is really not a limitation, but rather a pledge of liberality. The school will welcome the foundation of chairs of theology by any body which is willing that its students should have the same teaching of Hebrew, Greek, Church History, Ethics, the History of Religions, and the Philosophy of Religion that is now given to the students of the school. The fact that such chairs are not founded is only one of many which go to show beyond a doubt that the sectarian spirit, far from being, as you suggest, in decay, is actually governing professional theological instruction in this country.

Non-sectarian instruction in theology in Cambridge is no longer an experiment. It has been in practice long enough for results to show themselves. The Divinity School, with a largely increased and greatly strengthened Faculty, which works in the closest relations with the general life of the University, has just about maintained its numbers. It has not become a popular resort for students of denominations having theological schools of their own. Even its graduate department, in which growth has been more marked, has not one-tenth of the students that ought to be attracted by the great advantages of a final year at Cambridge, and by the instruction given in subjects not generally touched upon in other theological schools. There is abundant evidence to show that this result comes from two causes—first, the *odium theologicum*, and, second, the fact that the school has distinctly set its face against the indiscriminate pauperizing of students which unhappily prevails in so many theological seminaries.

Ephraim Emerton.

Cambridge August 4, 1892.

POLITICAL PURITY IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are sundry events in the political life of our newer States which show a wonderful tendency in our younger politicians to eliminate the decalogue from politics as Ingalls once advised them to do.

I think a few of the many illustrations in this State would be of interest to your readers. During the recent county conventions I do not recall a single Federal officer who did not take part in the wire-pulling. In Yakima County, for instance, among the delegates were the Indian Agent and his employee, the Register and Receiver of the U. S. Land Office, the Postmaster in the leading post-office, etc. When it is remembered that the local land officers occupy positions of a judicial nature, further comment is unnecessary. But perhaps the most disgraceful example of the spoils system is to be found in Thurston County, where the friends of a candidate for the Supreme Court insisted on the convention appointing a committee to wait on him and obtain a list of the delegates whom he desired to have sent to the State Convention. The candidate returned his list, and they were selected by the Convention. When we remember that he was at the time on the Superior bench, that his leading supporters "pointed with pride" to this as an indication of "strength," and that no adverse criticism has yet appeared, ought we to be surprised that so many admired Hill's snap convention?

The effect of all this is as degrading to our political life as one would expect. It is well known that some of our Superior judges formed combinations with attorneys to secure their positions, and thus give us a living example of the blessings New York enjoyed under Boss Tweed. I am informed on unquestionable authority that an attorney in the central part of the State boasts to his clients that he owns the judge, and two-thirds of the community believe him, yet they are apparently willing to allow him to continue the ownership. Men who are reasonable and honest in most things show a wonderful disinclination to credit any man with a sincere desire to obtain better officers. If one says Federal officers ought to be removed for going into politics, he is a theorist or a crank. Mugwump means hypocrite, or one who changes politics for personal ends, and in its Eastern sense is entirely unknown here. Citizen.

Seattle, Wash., August 2, 1892

EDMUND L. STEWARDSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The death of the young sculptor, Mr. Edmund L. Stewardson, who was drowned on the 3d of July, while sailing at Newport, is a misfortune to American art. That he was so little known is natural, since he did not live to be twenty-eight; it is more significant that he was known so much, and that the work his brief years accomplished had already earned the high esteem and expectations of every artist who saw it.

Mr. Stewardson was a Philadelphian, and began his serious studies in the Life Class at the Academy of Fine Arts, which he entered in February, 1882. He was then seventeen. There were no good chances to learn modelling, but he profited instantly by the admirable teaching of Mr. Eakins in the treatment of muscular action, and developed a power to give the muscles a coherent play throughout any figure, which is a thing seldom mastered except by mature workers. In this young beginner it astonished the instructors at the Paris École des Beaux-Arts, where Mr. Stewardson presented himself for examination in the autumn of 1887. He passed first among seventy-two competitors, French, English, German, and of all countries. This brilliant beginning brought him at once into notice, and during 1888 he was selected by M. Chapu to work with him. In 1889 his nude figure "La Baigneuse" won a mention in the Salon. The excellence of this study got Mr. Stewardson his admission to the Society of American Artists. He was the youngest member ever elected.

In 1890 he started his studio in Philadelphia. During the two remaining years, he worked with ardent industry. Besides many studies, he completed four portrait busts. For two of these he had no live model, and studied from death-masks and photographs — discouraging and unfavorable conditions. Yet as likenesses these busts satisfied the families, while artists were struck with their singular skill and strength. During this last year Mr. Stewardson's merit was becoming recognized. The distinction of his talent, and his just and competent taste, had made an impression even on Philadelphia; and for the coming year he had been appointed to instruct both at the University and at the Academy of Fine Arts. The men in Paris were watching Mr. Stewardson's career, and have been quick to express their distress at his untimely loss. But it will be sufficient to quote Mr. St. Gaudens, who has said: "I was impressed not only by his skill,

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but by his personality. My opinion of him both as a sculptor and as a man was such that, had I taken the decorative sculpture on the buildings of the Exposition at Chicago, I had selected Mr. Stewardson to have charge of it all. Without question he would have been a leading sculptor—he was such already among the younger men." O. W.

PHILADELPHIA, August 5, 1892.

Notes.

Two illustrated books by Dr. Charles C. Abbott are announced—'Recent Rambles,' in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.; and 'Recent Archæological Explorations in the Valley of the Delaware,' to be published by Ginn & Co.

D. Appleton & Co., also, have in preparation a book of outdoor life, 'In Gold and Silver,' by George H. Ellwanger, with illustrations by W. H. Gibson, A. B. Wenzel, and W. C. Greenough, in two editions—one "de luxe."

The first volume of an illustrated edition of Green's 'Short History of the English People' will soon be published by Harper & Bros. Several colored plates will reinforce the wood-engravings, and the portrait-gallery will be large.

S. C. Griggs & Co. have nearly ready 'England and its Rulers,' by H. Pomeroy Brewster and George H. Humphrey, and 'Eclectic Shorthand Phrase-book,' by J. G. Cross.

'German Orthography and Phonology,' by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan, is shortly to be issued by Ginn & Co., who set down for the autumn 'Fourier's Series, and Spherical, Cylindrical and Ellipsoidal Harmonics,' with an introductory treatise by Prof. Byerly of Harvard.

D. C. Heath & Co. will soon publish 'The Bible and English Prose Style,' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

A Life of Sir Henry Sumner Maine is promised in the autumn by John Murray, as well as an abridgment of the memoir of Jenny Lind.

Cánovas & Traynor, 3 Calle de Santa Catalina, Madrid, invite subscriptions to a reproduction of the first geographical chart of America (1500), by Juan de la Cosa, Columbus's sailing-master in his first and second voyages. It will be a facsimile at scale, and in the original colors, from which black, by the way, is absent. The price for the popular edition, on satin paper, is twelve shillings. There will also be editions on parchment, hand-colored (£20), and on vellum (£1).

The 'History of Education,' by Prof. Painter of Roanoke College, Va., has been translated and published in Japanese. The same author has ready for publication a 'History of English Literature.'

The Appletons have just brought out a third, revised edition of Mr. Louis Heilprin's 'Historical Reference Book,' which is quite the most compact, convenient, accurate, and authoritative work of the kind in the language. It is a happy combination of history, biography, and geography, and should find a place in every family library, as well as at the elbow of every scholar and writer. The "Chronological Table of Universal History," year by year, has been extended from May, 1886, to May, 1892, and has also been overhauled from 1883. The "Chronological Dictionary of Universal History" has received numerous additions, sometimes at the expense of a trivial omission, like the capture of Arica by Chili. The "Biographical Dictionary" has kept up with the death-roll, and in the case of ex-President Grévy the birthdate is explicitly corrected, adding six years to his life. There are also probably several insertions, but De Amicis is the only one we chance to have remarked. The typography remains ideally good for such a manual.

Roberts Bros. continue their charming edition of Jane Austen's novels with 'Emma' in two volumes, with the customary etched frontispiece vignette to each. And now comes a formidable rival in a dainty English edition devised by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan). The elegant typography is somewhat more condensed, and the volumes are consequently lighter to the hand than in the American edition. The photogravures, after designs by William Cubit Cooke, are more numerous; and in the opening work ('Sense and Sensibility') the frontispiece is from an interesting portrait of Miss Austen at the age of fifteen. The text followed is that of the last editions revised by the author, and the original order of publication is observed. 'Lady Susan' will be omitted. A sketch of Miss Austen prefaces the work before us. Finally, the binding is tasteful in the extreme.

In the latest issue of the Peacock novels, 'Gryll Grange' (Macmillan), the editor owns to some falling off in the author, but he confines it to quantity, and thinks that in quality the book is, within its limits, "as good as any that ever came from Peacock's pen." Ethically he regards it as an advance, and he especially recommends it to the man of letters over its companions because "in none of them is there so much agreeable and instructive talk about books." The novel is published in two volumes.

'The Best Letters of Charles Lamb,' edited with an introduction by Edward Gilpin Johnson (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), represents very fairly Lamb's qualities as a letter-writer, and also conveys necessarily much information about himself and his friends. What was lacking in the way of autobiography is amply supplied by the editor. The little volume makes a very good shelf-companion to Elia, only it should have an index.

The first volume of Henry Craik's 'Swift: Selections from his Works' (Macmillan) is abundantly provided with editorial helps, in the shape of a Life of unusual excellence on both the historical and literary sides, and in addition brief introductions to each body of selections, and very full and minute notes explaining the mass of contemporary incident, character, and allusion. The first volume covers only the period to 1712, and includes specimens of the early poetry of Swift, the 'Tale of a Tub,' and the Journal to Stella, besides other pieces. The arrangement, however, is not chronological in detail. The volume is solid, containing nearly 380 pages of text. Two volumes of these dimensions and edited in this way should provide quite enough acquaintance with Swift for any except the specialist; but it is rather to older students that such an author appeals. Though a text-book, and carefully made decent, it is not for boys and girls.

A volume that is for boys and girls may be found in 'Select Essays of Addison, together with Macaulay's Essay on Addison's Life and Writings,' edited by Samuel Thurber (Boston: Allyn & Bacon). The preface descants on the teaching of literature, and the notes illustrate a new method, new, at least, in degree. Instead of explaining various simple matters, the scholar's attention is called to the need of his finding out for himself what is wanted, and some hints are given as to what volumes he had better consult, usually books that ought to be at hand in a well-equipped high school. This certainly has the advantage of teaching the scholars something at least of method, and accustoming them to use books collectively. The selections from Addison are unexceptionable; but in the excellent reference to authorities on the period Forster's essay on Steele, replying to Macaulay's studied depreciation, should not have been neglected.

The second volume of Dr. K. A. Schmid's 'Geschichte der Erziehung vom Anfang an bis auf unsere Zeit' (Stuttgart: Cotta), in the preparation of which the editor is aided by "a number of scholars and schoolmen," has just appeared. It is a large octavo of more than a thousand pages, divided into two parts, the first of which begins with a chapter on "Christian Education in its relation to Judaism and to the Ancient World," by the late Prof. Gustav Baur of Leipzig, who is also the author of the final chapter, on "Jewish and Mohammedan Education." The second chapter, on "Education in the Middle Ages," by Prof. Hermann Masius, treats of cloistral and elementary schools, as they then existed, and is supplemented by a chapter on "Mediæval Universities," in which Prof. Otto Kaemmel gives an admirable account of the origin and organization of those institutions, the subjects taught, the methods of instruction, the life and character of the students, and the results of the training they received. The second part of the second volume sketches the history of education in the age of humanism, and the influence of the Reformation as shown in the principal Protestant Universities. We may add that the first volume, published in 1884, was a comprehensive study of education before the Christian era, and that the third volume, which is to be issued before the close of the present year, will be devoted to education in modern times.

M. J. Chailley-Bert patriotically admires the colonizing aptitude of his fellow-countrymen, especially as exhibited in Tonquin, but he has come to the conclusion that the ill success of the French as colonists is due to their lack of foresight and their habit of imposing their laws and ways upon the natives. He has therefore written, under the title 'La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine: l'Expérience Anglaise' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), a study of British methods of colonization and government of conquered Eastern lands. He has selected Hong Kong and Burmah as striking examples, and from the history of these two colonies draws lessons of practical importance which he begs the French people and Government alike to lay to heart.

An edition of Alphonse Daudet's 'L'Obstacle' (B. Westermann & Co.), brought out in the thoroughly artistic style of the Paris house of Flammarion, will please readers by its appearance. The piece itself is in four acts, and turns upon the question of hereditary madness. It is not a strong work, and does not display very much of Daudet's unquestionable talent.

The lithographers are as unwilling as the etchers to be copyists only, if we may judge by the formation in Paris of a society of "Peintres-Lithographes," on the lines of the painter-etchers' association. They announce a quarterly album of ten plates by ten different lithographers. Among the contributors to the first number are M. Jules Cheret and M. A. Willette. The price of the forty annual plates will be 240 francs. The Paris publisher is M. E. Sagot (New York: F. W. Christern).

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The principal article in the July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is a description of various journeys in Sierra Leone, by G. H. Garrett. The most important of these was a mission to the Almadi, the ruler of a Mohammedan kingdom on the Upper Niger. This man, who is better known as Samory, was formerly a slave, but has gained his present position by his ability, aided by a reputation as a prophet. His career of conquest, recently checked by the French, is marked by an almost unexampled destruction. Mr. Garrett travelled "four hundred miles through a destroyed country, not a single town or village left, the whole way strewn with bodies in every stage of decomposition to bleached skeletons." Samory's army consists of both horse and foot, and exhibits a remarkable order and discipline. The Mendis, one of the interior tribes, is ruled by a "secret politico-religious society," known as the "Porroh," into which the natives are initiated after a novitiate of from one to four weeks, being tattooed and receiving a new name. "Wars are arranged and stopped, heirs to chiefdom approved or disapproved, and laws generally are made, by the Porroh." The Government has some resemblance to the old feudal system, and trial by ordeal is common.

We are gradually being brought nearer the makers of the much discussed "bird tracks" of the Connecticut River Valley. In "Notes on Triassic Dinosauria," in the *American Journal of Science* for June, 1892, Prof. Marsh of the United States Geological Survey figures and describes portions of the skeletons of three recent and suggestive discoveries. The skull of *Anchisaurus colurus* might at first sight be taken for that of a bird if it were not for the teeth, thirty-six or more in each set. The bones were thin-walled and light. The fore foot had three digits functional in walking, the fifth being rudimentary and the fourth too short. The hind foot also had the fifth digit rudimentary, while the first was so short that the foot would make, as Prof. Marsh says, a three-toed track very much like the supposed bird-tracks of the Connecticut River sandstones.

Fanny D. Bergen contributes to the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for April-June a useful group of popular American plant-names, by way of encouraging this branch of dialect and folk-lore. Of a certain fungus called "death-baby," she notes that as it is fabled to foretell death in the family, she has "known of intelligent people [in Salem, Mass.] rushing out in terror and beating down a colony of these as soon as they appeared in the yard." There are several excellent papers on superstitions and proverbs in Virginia, Baltimore, North Carolina, and Arkansas, furnishing numerous parallels, as in the injunction to put the roof on a building "when the little moon hangs down, so the shingles won't turn up." Indian myths and usages receive their usual attention. The editor, in a book review, disputes the tradition of Miss Eliza Quincy's mother feeding with a snake out of a bowl of bread and milk, and restraining its greed by taps on the head with her spoon. He thinks that Mrs. Quincy honestly appropriated to herself a snake legend known in France and in Germany.

The centenary of the witchcraft delusion at Salem, Mass., lends especial interest to a "Genealogy of the Nurse Family for Five Generations" in *Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine* for July. A frontispiece shows the house of Rebecca Nurse at Danvers. A monument to this good woman, bearing the names of her neighbors who courageously if vainly testified to her character, has just been erected over her grave.

We read in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* that Mr. Sidney Perley of Salem has begun the arrangement of the genealogy of every person who lived in Essex County, Mass., before 1800. In the same number it is noticeable that Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" are placed at the very end, for convenience. This instalment possesses quite the average interest, and has much to tell of the connection of the Wards of Ipswich, among others. It is preceded by a valuable table of the will-registers of the Prerogative Court of Canterbury, prepared by Mr. J. C. C. Smith, of the Probate Registry, Somerset House, London. We may also mention a paper by Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis on the "Exhibitions of Harvard College prior to 1800," being an antiquarian research into gifts and bequests for scholarship during that period of which the founders' names have been more or less obscured by a merging of the exhibition accounts. Women figure largely in the list, and the very first gift, £100, was made by Lady Ann Mowlson of London, in 1643.

A properly managed Congress of scientific men from all parts of the world, convened to present and consider investigations in specific lines of research, cannot fail to exert an important influence on the progress of science, whether pure or applied. As part of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the Columbian Exposition, the general Committee on Mathematics and Astronomy, of which Prof. G. W. Hough is Chairman, has issued a preliminary address inviting the coöperation of all persons and societies interested in these departments of physical science, and bringing the general subject of the Congress to the notice of scientific men everywhere. In particular are advice and suggestions sought with reference to the questions to be discussed. The Committee have divided their large field into (1) Pure Mathematics, in which the main sections are arithmetic and theory of numbers, analysis, and mathematical physics; (2) Astronomy, with sections embracing the history of astronomy, astronomical instruments, methods of observation, physical astronomy, and observatory buildings; and (3) Astrophysics, to include spectrum analysis, astronomical photography, and stellar photometry. An Advisory Council has been appointed, with the chief mathematicians and astronomers of the world as members, who will make recommendations of themes to be discussed by the Congress; and the entire movement ought to bring about a closer and more effective international coördination in scientific work than can be said to obtain at present.

—The *Academy* of July 16 published the list of pensions granted during the last year and charged upon the English Civil List. Among those granted on account of scholarship or literary eminence, we note one of £100 a year to the widow of the late Mr. E. A. Freeman, the historian; one of £25 a year to each of the three daughters of the late Rev. F. H. A. Scrivener, "in consideration of the eminence of their father as a Biblical scholar, and of their inadequate means of support"; and one of £50 to the widow of Mr. G. H. Bettany. Mr. Edward Walford receives a pension of £100; Dr. George Gore one of £150; Mr. H. D. Macleod one of £100—all for services rendered to science or literature. Mr. Henry Bradley's admirable work on the 'New English Dictionary' is recognized by a pension of £150. Most people will hear with surprise of the £40 granted to Mrs. Mary Gray Garden, "in consideration of the literary merits of her father, the late James Hogg." The Ettrick Shepherd died fifty-seven years ago, and that a daughter of his is still alive is an unexpected revelation. There are seventeen pensions in all, and their amount is £1,200. Two things are noteworthy in the list: the meagreness of the amounts granted, and the painful addendum that comes back like a refrain at the end of almost every one of the announcements—"in consideration of inadequate means of support." However, the disclosures recently made in the case of Miss A. B. Edwards and her pension may show that the phrase is only a conventional formula.

—'Notes for the Nile,' by H. D. Rawnsley (London: W. Heinemann), is the work of an enthusiastic lover of ancient Egyptian art and literature. The first part contains an account of the methods of the construction and decoration of the tombs, together with the burial ceremonials. This is followed by a description of Mr. Flinders Petrie's work at the Medum Pyramid, showing in a fresh and interesting way the manner in which excavations are now carried on. A chapter upon the great Pharaoh tells in a graphic manner the story of the recent discovery and removal of the royal mummies from their desert tomb to Bulak. This removal, according to Brugsch Bey, who superintended it, was accompanied by a most striking demonstration of grief by the natives. "There arose from all the land of Egypt 'an exceeding bitter cry,' and women wailing and tearing their hair, men casting dust above their heads, came crowding from the villages to the banks to make lamentation for Pharaoh," as the flotilla bearing the bodies passed down the stream. Mr. Rawnsley has also brought together in a readable form the main facts in the life of Seti I., the father of the Pharaoh of the bondage of Israel. The second half of the volume contains some metrical translations of ancient Egyptian hymns, including a portion of the heroic poem of Pentaur and the 'Precepts' of Ptah-hotep. The teachings of this latter book, the oldest in the world, since it was written in the century preceding, 3266 B. C., are marked by simplicity and directness, as well as by their humanity, as the following extract shows: "If thou become great after thou hast been little; if thou hast become rich after thou hast been poor, when thou art at the head of the city, know well how to use the position that thou hast gained. Harden not thy heart because of thy rank; remember that thou art become only the steward of the good things of God. Put not behind thee thy neighbor who is as thou once wast. Treat him as an equal." Among the pictures of the native life of the present day drawn by Mr. Rawnsley, the pleasantest is that of the workpeople of Mr. Petrie, who, without the stimulus of either whip or overseer, work with zeal, industry, and honesty. This leads the author to plead urgently for the abolition of the kurbash, with which in every other part of Egypt the natives are still driven to their work.

—If there were any occasion to doubt the activity and effectiveness of the younger generation of American astronomers in dealing with current problems affecting the future of their science, it would speedily be removed by examination of any such "Account of the Progress of Astronomy" as that now published biennially in the Smithsonian Report, and compiled by Mr. William C. Winlock, an assistant to Prof. Langley, and himself one of the

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younger workers who have attained a reputation worth having. To take, for example, the last issue of this periodical paper, which has recently appeared in separate form, perhaps the most significant and far-reaching work of the period in question is that relating to the motions of planetary nebulæ toward or from the earth, by Prof. Keeler, who has lately left the Lick Observatory to become the Director at Allegheny, Pennsylvania. Not only were the nebular movements in space made a subject of careful determination, but the character and position of the brightest line in the nebular spectrum were thoroughly investigated under most favorable conditions of atmosphere and instruments. One of these latter was a Rowland diffraction grating with 14,438 lines to the inch. Whoever has been fascinated by the meteoritic theory of Lockyer will find in Keeler's work a rather harsh damper of his ardor; for in no one of the nebulæ observed has the critical line been found coincident with the fluting of magnesium, as Lockyer maintained, but the signal observations of Dr. Huggins have met with the fullest confirmation, and the chief nebular line has at no time and under no circumstances appeared anything like a fluting.

—Prof. Barnard, still remaining upon the staff of the Lick Observatory, is hardly less well known, and his enthusiastic labors have received frequent comment in these columns; and a third young member of that staff, Prof. Schaeberle, has achieved much distinction more recently by his contributions to solar theories, and to eclipse research as well. This latter, calling for expeditions not infrequently to remote parts, has formed an attractive field which the younger astronomers of America have not been slow to harvest—Pickering employing important modifications of spectroscopic appliances in California; Todd inventing and using in Africa a novel method of operating any number of photographic instruments as a mechanical automaton; and Bigelow, assistant astronomer on this latter expedition, developing to a satisfactory conclusion a form of portable telescope which promises much for the future. But this note must be concluded with briefest mention of a half score of other names—some of them very prominently known, and all of them recognized in scientific circles the world over, because of their work: Chandler, whose researches upon variable stars are unsurpassed; Boss, whose standard star-places are authority in every observatory and upon every survey; Elkin, the precision of whose stellar distances ranks his work with that of the great Bessel; Crew and Hale, who are manifesting remarkable ability in solar studies; Payne and Wilson, engaged upon miscellaneous astronomical problems, Comstock and Porter upon star positions and the investigation of astronomical constants; the younger Hall, determining anew the mass of the planet Saturn; Sanford, making important researches into the psychology of personal equation; Very and Hutchins, attacking with marked success the intricate questions which are presented by the lunar radiations; while the activities of many others whose names do not occur at this moment are scarcely less worthy of mention. All told, there seems in America to be a distinct growth in astronomical interest unexcelled elsewhere, except, perhaps, among the French.

SYBEL'S GERMAN EMPIRE.—I.

The Founding of the German Empire by William I. By Heinrich von Sybel. Translated by Marshall Livingston Perrin, Ph.D., of Boston University, assisted by Gamaliel Bradford, jr. Vols. III., IV., V. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1891-'92.

In Von Sybel's second volume Bismarck was inducted into the premiership of Prussia, and began to smooth the way for the struggle with Austria. By the aid rendered to Russia during the Polish insurrection, he strengthened the dynastic sympathy already existing between that country and his own; and he gratified the French Emperor and initiated better relations with France by a commercial treaty which considerably lowered the duties levied by the German Customs Union.

In his third volume the historian describes the united diplomatic action of Prussia and Austria against the German Confederation on the one hand and Denmark on the other, and their joint conduct of the Danish war. The treaty of peace left the allies in possession of Schleswig-Holstein, but in their joint tenancy lay the germs of discord and conflict in the near future. In his fourth volume the author traces the growth of the quarrel down to the outbreak of the Austro-Prussian war, and in the fifth he describes that war and the formation of the North German Confederation. The third and fifth volumes are largely occupied with the military movements of 1864 and 1866. This part of the history, often recounted in official reports and in the writings of military experts, we pass over, remarking merely that Von Sybel's narrative is always clear and interesting. The real contribution to historic knowledge made by these three volumes is the detailed account, from the Prussian and other archives, of the Prussian and European diplomacy of the years 1864 to 1866 inclusive.

The complicated Schleswig-Holstein question has never, we think, been treated with equal lucidity. It is interesting to note that the historian achieves clearness of statement by insisting on the same distinction which underlies the diplomacy of the statesman—the distinction of the constitutional question in Schleswig-Holstein from the dynastic question. The almost unanimous demand of the German people (supported at the time by Von Sybel himself) was that the dynastic question should be placed in the foreground. Holstein and Schleswig were to be separated from Denmark by compelling Denmark and Europe to recognize the Augustenburg claimant as rightful proprietor of the duchies. Bismarck, however, insisted on postponing the dynastic question, and conducted the diplomatic campaign on the constitutional issue—on the claim that the duchies had constitutional rights guaranteed by European treaties which Denmark was violating. It is easy to see now how much wiser this policy was than that advocated by the Prussian Diet and the German people. The dynastic question was not absolutely clear; the constitutional claim hardly admitted of dispute. On the dynastic issue the hands of Prussia were tied by the London treaties of 1852, to which she was a party, and which had set aside the Augustenburg claims. On the constitutional issue Prussia had the best of rights to interfere actively, for in the treaties of 1852 Denmark had promised Austria and Prussia that Schleswig should not be incorporated in the Danish State, but should remain autonomous. Denmark was now trying to incorporate Schleswig; she had issued a common constitution for Denmark and Schleswig. This was a violation of her treaty obligations, and Austria and Prussia had a clear right to force her to observe those obligations.

Of course they had the alternative right of declaring that their assent to the exclusion of the Augustenburg claimant had been invalidated by Denmark's failure to keep her promises. In the treaties of 1852 those promises had been expressly declared to be the ground of that assent. In legal phrase, Austria and Prussia had the right either to demand specific performance or to rescind the whole contract. Had they elected the latter course, they would have been free to recognize Frederick of Augustenburg as Duke of Schleswig-Holstein. But they would then have had no right to make war upon Denmark for the purpose of installing Duke Frederick in Schleswig. Acting as German powers and through the German Diet, they could establish him in Holstein, but in Schleswig the German Confederation had no authority. The invasion of Schleswig in behalf of the Augustenburger, had it been attempted, would have been without color of right, and all Europe would have been arrayed on the side of Denmark. The result would probably have been the permanent incorporation of Schleswig in Denmark; and this, as Von Sybel shows, was the result which the dominant party in Denmark, the "Eider-Danes," desired. They were willing to let Holstein go in order really to secure Schleswig.

It was objected at the time that the course of action pursued by Bismarck would result in the reëstablishment of the personal union of both duchies with Denmark. This was, in fact, what Austria and nearly all German conservatives desired. The liberation of the duchies, attempted in 1848, was associated with the national and revolutionary ideas of tha period, and was therefore abhorrent to all good Tories. It was supposed that Bismarck shared these views. But Bismarck, as we now know, neither desired the reëstablishment of the personal union, nor did he anticipate it. War once declared, he saw that the prize of victory would be whatever the victors chose to make it. But he could not well say this, for such a declaration would have frightened Austria out of the alliance and would have consolidated European sentiment against Prussia. By recognizing, for the time, the personal authority of Christian IX. in the duchies, and by restricting Prussia's initial demands to the reëstablishment of Schleswig's autonomy, he carried Austria with him and disarmed the jealousy of Europe. The condemnation which was showered upon him by the diets of Prussia and other German States, and by popular meetings all over Germany, was ingeniously turned to account and made to serve his policy. "See," said Bismarck (in effect) to Austria and to the other Powers, "how revolutionary is the demand of the German people. They desire, in defiance of the European treaties of 1852, to separate Schleswig-Holstein entirely from Denmark. We, on the other hand, take our stand on those treaties and seek simply their enforcement. If you resist our just and moderate demands, we must retire from the conduct of affairs, and ministers in sympathy with the popular desire must take our places." Alarmed by such a prospect, Austria joined forces with Prussia, and Europe endeavored to persuade Denmark to grant the Austro-Prussian demands. But this, as Bismarck foresaw, Denmark could not do. King Christian, indeed, wished to withdraw the Constitution which had been proclaimed for Denmark and Schleswig; but the Eider-Danish Ministry, backed by the sentiment of Copenhagen, refused its coöperation, and the King found it impossible to form a Conservative Cabinet. So it came to war, and

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the result of the war was such as Bismarck had hoped from the outset.

Through all the preliminary negotiations, as we now learn, Bismarck avoided committing Prussia in any definitive manner to the personal union of the duchies with Denmark. He recognized this as the existing legal status, but he refused to bind Prussia to the maintenance of this status after hostilities should have begun. In January, 1864, when the treaty of alliance between Prussia and Austria was still under discussion, Austria proposed that no other solution of the question than the personal union should be adopted, save by agreement of both the allies. Bismarck amended this clause so as to make it read that the future position of the duchies should be determined only by agreement between the allies. The difference was very important: the Austrian draft would have enabled Austria to hold Prussia to the personal union, while Bismarck's draft gave Prussia the right to veto the personal union. The Austrian Ministers did not fail to appreciate the distinction, but they were by this time so far committed to the Prussian alliance, and so apprehensive of Bismarck's retirement and the appointment of a radical cabinet in Berlin, that they accepted the amended reading. Later in the same month England, France, and Russia tried to obtain from the allies a pledge of Denmark's territorial integrity. Austria wished to give the pledge, but Bismarck refused.

After the first victories of the allies and during the first negotiations for peace at London, Prussia agreed with Austria that the personal union, with proper guarantees for the autonomy of the duchies, was "to be preferred"; but the Danes, as Bismarck expected, refused to discuss this arrangement. From that moment the personal union disappeared entirely from the Prussian programme, and Bismarck refused to consider any solution except the complete separation of Holstein and at least the major part of Schleswig from Denmark. The further victories of the allies and the quiescence of Europe brought Denmark to terms, and in the treaty of peace Schleswig-Holstein and the little duchy of Lauenburg were ceded to Austria and Prussia. The question was then, of course, what should the allies do with the duchies? Austria, carried far beyond her original programme by the course of events and the astute diplomacy of the Prussian premier, fell back upon the candidacy of Duke Frederick of Augustenburg. She had originally opposed his claims, identified as they were with the national and revolutionary impulses of the German people; but the organization of Schleswig-Holstein as an independent State was now the only alternative to the annexation of the duchies by Prussia, and the Augustenburger was almost universally regarded as the rightful Duke. This was a solution which Bismarck did not desire—he was not inclined to erect a new principality in North Germany; but he did not refuse to discuss the proposition. He demanded for Prussia, however, certain naval and military rights in Schleswig-Holstein. Prussia, he declared, was entitled to some advantages in return for her expenditures of blood and treasure; and the duchies, left to themselves, were not strong enough to resist Denmark. Without disputing these assertions, Austria intimated that Duke Frederick should first be recognized and that negotiations should then be opened with him. Bismarck preferred to have the negotiations precede the recognition. An informal interview with the Duke showed him to be quite disinclined to make the concessions which Prussia desired. In the meantime a change of ministry took place in Vienna, and the new Cabinet, while admitting that Prussia might reasonably claim certain privileges in the duchies, protested against her demands as excessive. Schleswig-Holstein, thus "protected," would not be an independent State.

In the spring of 1865 the relations between the allies were seriously strained. Again, as in the early stages of the Schleswig-Holstein complication, Bismarck carefully studied the European situation. Napoleon was anxious to embroil Prussia and Austria, and hinted at an alliance with the former Power. Bismarck did not desire the French alliance, for French support could be recompensed only by the sacrifice of German interests. With Italy, however, an alliance could easily be arranged without the abandonment of any German territory. All that was necessary was to promise her Venice. Napoleon seemed favorably disposed towards such an alliance. At a full Cabinet meeting in Berlin, May 29, 1865, Bismarck and Moltke gave their voices for the annexation of Schleswig-Holstein and war with Austria. But King William decided to adhere for the time to the demand for a Prussian protectorate over the duchies. This being still refused, the Augustenburg candidacy disappeared from the Prussian list of possibilities as completely as the idea of the personal union with Denmark had previously disappeared. An official opinion of the Prussian Crown jurists, in June, 1865, denied the validity of Duke Frederick's claims. His father had renounced his rights and taken money for the renunciation; King Christian IX. had been the rightful Duke of Schleswig and Holstein until he ceded them to Austria and Prussia; nobody had now any rights of sovereignty in the duchies except these two Powers. Fortified by this legal opinion, King William called upon the Emperor Francis Joseph to coöperate with him in expelling the Augustenburger from the duchies. No satisfactory answer was received and war seemed inevitable. But another change of ministry took place in Vienna, and the quarrel was patched up by the treaty of Gastein. According to Von Sybel, Bismarck was at the moment less sure than he liked of the attitude of Italy and France, while the Austrian Ministers found the army and treasury in such a condition that they shrank from an immediate war. The terms of the treaty are well known. Prussia and Austria agreed to divide the administration of the duchies, Austria holding Holstein and Prussia Schleswig. Prussia also obtained Lauenburg outright, for a money consideration, and the control of the harbor of Kiel. But the great advantage which Prussia registered at Gastein was the practical repudiation by Austria of the Augustenburg claims, and her tacit recognition of the correctness of the Prussian position—that nobody but Austria and Prussia had any rights in the duchies.

The separate administration, however, occasioned no less friction than the joint administration. The arrangement was felt on both sides to be provisional, and Austria soon returned to the Augustenburg candidacy as the most desirable settlement of the question. The encouragement given by Austria to the Augustenburg party aroused increasing bitterness in Berlin; and when, at last, Austria submitted the Schleswig-Holstein question to the Confederate Diet, Bismarck declared the treaty of Gastein broken and Prussian troops were sent into Holstein. This, in his view, was merely the reëstablishment of the joint administration; but Austria pronounced it an act of war. The Austrian representative in the Confederate Diet moved the mobilization of the Confederate troops against Prussia; and, this motion being carried by a majority vote, Prussia declared the Confederation dissolved.

Before the outbreak of the war, Prussia had secured the alliance of Italy and assurances of French neutrality. The negotiations which led to this result constitute a singularly tangled web of intrigue. After the conclusion of the treaty of Gastein, La Marmora suggested to Austria the sale of Venice to Italy and an alliance against Prussia. The fruits of victory were to be, for Italy, the Italian Tyrol, and for Austria, Silesia. At about the same time Bismarck offered to buy out Austria's interest in Schleswig-Holstein. These proposals were offensive to the pride of the Imperial State, and they were both rejected. Italy, with the authorization of Napoleon, then turned to Prussia; and, after much haggling, due to the suspicious temper of the Italian negotiators, an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded, April 8, 1866, which was to hold good only in case hostilities should begin within three months. Austria, getting wind of this treaty, offered Venice to Napoleon, April 26, in return for French and Italian neutrality. Napoleon inquired (not for the first time) what Prussia would pay for French neutrality, but obtained no definite answer. Bismarck, informed of the offer of Austria to abandon Venice, and uncertain of the attitude of France, considered, for a moment, the possibility of a reconciliation with Austria. It was very late for such an attempt, for Austria, Italy, and Prussia were all mobilizing at full speed. But certain ingenious proposals for a settlement were made by one Gablenz, a Prussian subject himself, but with influential Austrian connections, his brother being a general in the Austrian service. Gablenz's suggestions were: (1) Schleswig-Holstein to constitute an independent State under a Prussian prince; (2) Prussia to receive the harbor of Kiel and to pay Austria five million thalers; (3) Schleswig-Holstein to pay Austria twenty million thalers for her expenses in liberating the duchies; (4) the military control of Germany to be divided between Prussia and Austria, Prussia commanding all the troops of North Germany and Austria those of South Germany. It seems, according to Von Sybel, that these proposals recommended themselves to Bismarck, and that Gablenz was authorized to see what he could do in Vienna. Here also his plan appears to have met with some favor; but the Austrian Ministers, impelled to war by internal troubles and impending bankruptcy, decided that it was too late to think of a peaceful settlement.

During these months (April and May, 1866) Napoleon and his Cabinet, playing to some extent at cross-purposes with each other, were negotiating simultaneously with Prussia, Austria, and Italy; and the attitude assumed by France, judged even by the lax canons of international morality, verged upon perfidy. The alliance between Prussia and Italy had been concluded not only with the knowledge but with the approval of Napoleon. His old sympathies for Italy and his vague enthusiasm for the "principle of nationality" led him to welcome a combination which would carry the unification of Italy a step further, and which might lead to a more compact organization of North Germany. Personally he seems to have believed that the friendship of Germany was worth more to France than territorial gains coupled with rancor. But such a policy did

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not recommend itself to the French people or to his own Ministers. They demanded tangible advantages for France in compensation for the disadvantage entailed by the strengthening of her neighbors. Prussia, though often sounded, would promise nothing definite. Bismarck sheltered himself behind his King; he himself was "more Prussian than German," but King William would not agree to the cession of a foot of German territory. Napoleon admitted that the attitude of the King was an honorable one, but authorized his Minister of Foreign Affairs to negotiate with Austria. According to Von Sybel, an arrangement was concluded by which, in the event of Austrian success, that Power was to have Silesia and to cede Venice to Italy. But the States of the Church were to be enlarged and the kingdom of Naples, it seems, was to be reëstablished. In return for this sacrifice by France of Italian unity, Austria agreed to sacrifice German unity. France was to rectify her eastern frontier, and the Confederation of the Rhine was to reappear in Southwestern Germany. All this if France would remain neutral and hold Italy back. But of course all these results were contingent upon the outbreak of the Austro-Prussian war; and Bismarck, uninformed, indeed, of the arrangements between France and Austria, but aware of the negotiations, did his best to make Napoleon believe that Prussia might still come to terms with Austria. One thing at least was perfectly clear—that Napoleon was anxious to see the war begun; and Bismarck, who desired from France nothing but neutrality, played upon Napoleon's anxiety with complete success. France pledged neutrality without any counter-pledge on the part of Prussia.

Meanwhile Italy had been informed that she was to have Venice in any case—even without fighting for it. Italy urged that she was bound to fight by the treaty of April 8. This Napoleon could not but recognize; but he counselled, or permitted his Ministers to counsel, that Italy should adhere to the letter rather than the spirit of her engagement. This, according to Von Sybel, explains the extremely lax conduct of the ensuing campaign by La Marmora.

NORTON'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE'S PARADISE.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. III. Paradise. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

DANTE'S third canticle is the least known and the least understood; nor need we be surprised that this is the case, because the "Paradise" is the most ethereal of all great poems. Readers who are startled by the terrific pictures in the "Hell," are not always able to rise to the sublimity of the "Paradise," to appreciate which a deeper insight and stronger imagination are needed. Shelley, we know, ranked the third canticle highest, and we have heard Mr. Lowell ratify this opinion. A little reflection will show why this theme should be so difficult. Eternal bliss is the one thing that man can form no adequate conception of; he can imagine pain as being prolonged for ever—that is hell; but he can experience no single pleasure which would not become a pain if it were to endure for ever. How, then, describe the unimaginable bliss of Paradise? How attribute to heaven's hosts employments which shall not seem insipid or become monotonous? How portray the citizens of heaven with individual features, and not merely as vague embodiments of virtues? Dante has done all this, which, had he not done it, we should declare to be unachievable. By suggestions, by parallels, and often enough by silence, he has enabled those who read wisely to catch, as he himself caught, glimpses, symbols if you will, of that state of perfected souls which we call heaven. Wonderful, indeed, is the effect which he produces by his references to music and to light; most wonderful is the way in which Beatrice, the beatified woman, his ideal on earth, his guide in heaven, irradiates his ascent to the very throne of God. "Das Ewig-weibliche zieht uns hinan," said Goethe; Dante shows us in supreme fashion how ideal womanhood leads man upward to the empyrean where the mere human is merged in the divine.

Such high themes must necessarily be above the ordinary comprehension; but there are other difficulties which account for the comparative neglect of this canticle. It is concerned with scholastic theology, whose terms have become obsolete except to students, and whose propositions seem narrow and inadequate to the modern enlightened mind. Even Dante cannot always charge this theology with human interest, and his truest admirers must concede, therefore, that there are in the "Paradise" certain dreary patches, where only the antiquary or the theologian will care to linger. As a whole, this canticle is the least picturesque, because it is impossible, except by hints, to describe the scenery of heaven. Hell, with its murk and flames, its whirlwinds and precipices and frozen pool, could be painted most vividly; not so Paradise. Yet in no other part of his epic has Dante displayed so conclusively his mastery of what we may call the architectonics of poetry, reducing all his material to proper proportions, and maintaining, canto by canto, that correspondence of contrast needed to emphasize the difference among souls in Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. Goethe, in the Second Part of "Faust," attempted an analogous development, but his work, in spite of many fine details, is mechanical as a whole; whereas Dante has hidden his machinery, and never allows us to hear the grinding of the wheels and the click of cog in cog. Though his theme is heaven, he constantly creates the impression of reality by references to earth, and in no other part of the 'Divine Comedy' does he admit us so intimately into the secrets of his own personality. In the famous apostrophe to the Roman Eagle, in Cacciaguida's account of uncorrupt Florence, he shows us his political ideals, and in many other passages he reveals his nature. Finally, the music of his verse pervades even those theological wastes we spoke of, and in neither of the other canticles can be found single lines or longer passages to be more treasured, whether for the beauty of their expression or the preciousness of their thought.

We set down thus, almost at random, a few of the impressions which a re-reading of the "Paradise" in Mr. Norton's translation, with the original at hand, has made upon us, because, having but little to say in criticism of the translation itself, we wish, as far as we may, to turn other readers to this crowning portion of Dante's epic. The translation is uniformly excellent, and almost invariably superior to Mr. Butler's. As an illustration of this take the well-known lines:

"Quale allodetta, che in aere si spazia
Prima cantando, e poi tace contenta
Dell' ultima dolcezza che la sazia,
Tal mi sembió l'imago della imprenta
Dell' eterno piacere, al cui disio
Ciascuna cosa, quale ell'è, diventa." (xx, 73-78.)

These Mr. Butler renders thus: "Like a lark which goes abroad in air, singing first, then holds her peace content with the last sweetness which sates her; such seemed to me the image of the imprint of the eternal pleasure, according to its desire for which each thing becomes of what sort it is." Mr. Norton's version runs: "Like as a little lark that in the air expatiates, first singing, and then is silent, content with the last sweetness which satisfies her, such seemed to me the imprint of the Eternal Pleasure, according to whose desire everything becomes that which it is." Here, as in numberless other instances which might be quoted, the superiority is fundamentally one of style, the power to put into better English more exactly the meaning of the Italian.

A minute criticism of Mr. Norton's translation might unearth particular words for which Dante scholars might prefer to substitute others, but we have noted no sentence which does not fairly interpret the original, and the choice of a particular word is largely a matter of taste. Thus, the *traligna* (xvi, 58) is represented by "degenerates," although the figure called up by the original is lost. Again, the much-discussed *si liqua*, in the first line of the fifteenth canto,

"Benigna volontade, in che si liqua,"

does not wholly satisfy us in Mr. Norton's "manifests itself." In xii, 99, we prefer to take *alta vena* as the object rather than the subject of *preme*, reading, "he went forth like a torrent which pours out a deep vein." So *ultimo* (xviii, 57) is better rendered "utmost" than "latest." *Ventre*, in xxiii, 104, is translated "bosom," in xxxiii, 7, "womb"; it would be well to use the latter word in both cases. How far English words which, if not obsolete, are at least unusual, may profitably be employed, is another question to be decided by individual taste. Thus, *convento* (xxx, 129) is rightly translated "convent," if we understand Dante to speak figuratively, but if he means, as seems more probable, a "coming together" or "assemblage," then the English "convent" is perhaps too quaint; for, though the Elizabethans used it as equivalent to "assemblage," custom has long since restricted it to specify the abode of monks or nuns. On the other hand, many of Mr. Norton's happy renderings deserve to be mentioned, as "crisis" for *punto* (xxx, 23), "bolted again" for *ricerna* (xi, 22), "paw" for *pianta* (xvi, 39); but they are part of the general excellence of the work, and it would be too long to enumerate them.

The notes, as usual, elucidate without going into discussion over the disputed points, and ought to suffice for any reader who wishes to get an understanding of Dante's general purpose. In the 'Divine Comedy,' as in the other supreme works of literature, the meaning of the really important passages is seldom perplexing; it is around details of phrase and textual minutiæ that commentators wage their too heated strife. The best advice that can be given to any beginner in Dante, or Shakspere, or Homer, is to master the essentials before turning aside into the maze of criticism.

In taking leave of this translation, we are reminded that within a generation America has produced the three most eminent English-speaking students of Dante—Longfellow, Lowell, and Norton, all neighbors at Cambridge. This is a fact for national pride, which too often exults over fleeting achievements in literature, to rejoice at. That Dante should be in large measure the master of three such men is also a significant fact, to be understood best by those who best understand Dante himself. His permanence was long since assured. His

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theology has grown antiquated, his philosophy has been superseded; these were but the transient conditions of his time for which we make due allowance, and in spite of which his poem lives, and will live, because above all other poems it deals with the permanent concerns of the human soul. Besides Dante, only Shakspere had traced the full circuit of man's life. It is unnecessary, it would be idle to say which is the greater—such comparisons are for schoolboys; but we may say that in his direct influence in shaping character, Dante has no superior. From him whoever will may learn, as he himself learned from Brunetto Latini, *come l'uom s'eterna*, how man makes himself eternal.

But Dante is not only a great moral guide, one of the four or five men who have fathomed deepest the spiritual nature of humanity; he is also the consummate artist. His ethical power might have been forgotten had it not been interfused with his poetic genius. And at the present time it were well that any one who desires to express himself through literature should study Dante long and wisely. In his art is a corrective for the "Impressionists" of the hour, on the one hand, and for the shallow disciples of "art for art's sake," on the other. His compression rebukes the diffuseness which characterizes nearly all contemporary writing —he exhausts in a single passage an episode which would now be rolled thin through three volumes. His intensity, laying bare reality at one stroke, rebukes our Epidermists who, through lack of imagination, heap up innumerable petty details, in the hope that thereby they may produce at least a skin-deep semblance of reality. Dante teaches nothing more clearly than that the cumulative process can never do the work of the imagination, nor mere observation that of insight. Dante deals constantly with essentials; our literary workers, whether in prose or verse, deal too generally with what philosophers term accidents. Hence it would be a good augury for the future of our literature if those who are now seeking guidance from Muscovy and Scandinavia, from Paris and Madrid, would turn to Dante, the great example of what is permanently beautiful, the great antidote against literary aberrations. Those who cannot read him in the Italian will find in Mr. Norton's translation all that it is possible for a translation to give of his preëminent qualities.

FRANCE OF THE JULY MONARCHY AND THE SECOND EMPIRE.

An Englishman in Paris: Notes and Recollections. D. Appleton & Co. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xv, 332; xv, 352.

THIS is an entertaining book crammed full of anecdotes about Frenchmen and Frenchwomen who were prominent in literature, art, and politics between 1830 and 1870. The first volume treats of the reign of Louis Philippe, the second of the Second Empire. The author, while giving some clues to his identity, conceals his name; and the easiest way to show a proper appreciation of the amusement he provides is to respect his incognito. He evidently belongs to an English family of distinction, was educated and married in France, where he was also well connected and where he spent most of his life; he never had any difficulty in becoming acquainted with the leaders of any of the several worlds which make up the world of Paris, and he seems to have had a truly Boswellian *flair* for celebrities, whether in the chrysalis or in the butterfly stage; he is quite devoid of every tincture of British insularity, and almost the only prejudice which can be laid to his charge is a very strong one against the bourgeoisie, imbibed during his youthful intercourse with the artists and other Bohemians who gave its peculiar character to the Quartier Latin in the thirties.

The Quartier Latin furnishes the theme of his opening chapter, which is mostly taken up with a description of the pranks, frolics, and practical jokes of the art students who inhabited a tumble-down building of five or six stories called "La Childebert," in the street of the same name, and many of whom achieved abiding fame; as witness Paul Delaroche, Tony Johannot, Aimé Millet, Eugène Delacroix, to mention only those whose reputation extends beyond France. As the building was too shaky to make dancing a safe amusement, the frequent festive gatherings of its inmates generally took the form of fancy-dress *conversazioni*, the peculiar feature of which was a strict adherence to the local color of the various periods represented. On such occasions

"the guests of the inmates of 'La Childebert' not only managed to out-Herod Herod in diction and attire, but, to heighten illusion still further, adopted as far as possible the mode of conveyance supposed to have been employed by their prototypes. The classicists, and those still addicted to the illustration of Greek and Roman mythology, though nominally in the minority at the 'Childebert' itself, were as a rule most successful in these attempts. The ass that bore Silenus, the steeds that had drawn the chariot of the triumphant Roman warrior, the she-goat that was supposed to have suckled Jupiter, were as familiar to the inhabitants of the Rue Childebert as the cats and mongrels of their own households. The obstructions caused by the former no longer aroused their ire; but when, one evening, Romulus and Remus made their appearance, accompanied by the legendary she-wolf, they went mad with terror. The panic was at its height when, with an utter disregard of mythological tradition, Hercules walked up the street leading the Nemæan lion. The aid of the police was invoked, but neither the police nor the national guards, who came after them, dared to tackle the animals; though they might have done so safely, because the supposed wolf was a great dane and the lion a mastiff, but so marvellously padded and painted as to deceive any but the most practised eye." (Vol. i., p. 14.)

When these scapegraces went to their favorite Théâtre Bobino, they joined in the choruses of the songs, and drowned the dialogue with interpolations from all parts of the house, until the noise rose to such a pitch that the manager came out and addressed them in a stereotyped speech, which they knew by heart, and in which he pointed out that the police would close the place if the audience disturbed the peaceful evening hours spent by the neighboring inhabitants in the bosom of their families; "which remark was always followed by the audience intoning as one man Grétry's 'Où peut-on être mieux qu'au sein de sa famille?' the orchestra—such an orchestra—playing the accompaniment, and the manager himself beating time." For the rest of the evening there was comparative quiet.

Although taking much delight in the society of these budding artists, it was the men who had already made their mark whom our author preferred in the world of literature. His great hero is Dumas (the elder), and he is never tired of sounding his praises, to which he gives up nearly all of his third chapter, with frequent references in other parts of the book. When speaking of the personal charm of Horace Vernet, he says that the only one of his contemporaries who exercised the same spell on his companions was Alexandre Dumas; in his account of the Duc d'Orléans, the oldest son of Louis Philippe, he calls him "one of the most charming men I have known. I always couple him in my mind with Benjamin Disraeli and Alexandre Dumas the elder. I knew the English statesman almost as well during part of my life as the French novelist. Though intellectually wide apart from them, the Duke had one, if not two traits in common with both: his utter contempt for money affairs, and the personal charm he wielded." (Vol. i., p. 294.)

The chronic impecuniosity of Dumas is much dwelt upon, and is favorably contrasted with that of other men, as, for instance, Lamartine. It was the more remarkable from the fact that for forty years Alexandre Dumas could not have earned less than $40,000 per annum, and that he neither smoked, drank, nor gambled, besides being a most frugal eater. Nevertheless, "it rained writs and summonses around him, while he himself was frequently without a penny."

"M. du Chaffault one day told me of a scene *à propos* of this which is worth reproducing. He was chatting to Dumas in his study when a visitor was shown in. He turned out to be an Italian man of letters and refugee on the verge of starvation. M. du Chaffault could not well make out what was said, because they were talking Italian, but all at once Dumas got up and took from the wall behind him a magnificent pistol, one of a pair. The visitor walked off with it, to M. du Chaffault's surprise. When he was gone, Dumas turned to his friend and explained: 'He was utterly penniless, and so am I; so I gave him the pistol.'

"'Great Heavens! You surely did not recommend him to go and make an end of himself!' interrupted Du Chaffault.

"Dumas burst out laughing. 'Of course not. I merely told him to go and sell or pawn it, and leave me the fellow-one in case some other poor wretch should want assistance while I am so terribly hard up.'" (Vol. i., p. 86.)

Work was a pleasure to Dumas, and while writing he would sometimes burst into a roar of laughter at the sallies of his characters. On one occasion, when he had been out shooting all day and was tired, he walked to a farmhouse to have a sleep; but, as the place was too noisy for that, he wrote a play in one act, "Romulus," which he sent to the Comédie-Française under a pseudonym, as the work of a young unknown author, and which was accepted without a dissentient vote.

Eugène Sue, who at one time divided the popular favor with Dumas, but has been distanced in the long run, does not fare nearly as well at the hands of our author, who accuses him of inveterate snobbishness, and of dandyism which was offensive because it did not sit naturally upon him. He was admitted to the Jockey Club as one of its original members, but made himself so offensive by the airs he put on after the success of his works had turned his head, that his name was dropped from the roll because, owing to a momentary embarrassment, he failed to pay his subscription; a rule being enforced against him which was almost a dead letter, but was seized as a pretext for getting rid of him. He endeavored to neutralize his expulsion by sending in his resignation, but the Committee adhered to its action. It is hard to realize at this distance of time what a sensation was created by 'Les Mystères de Paris' while it was appearing in serial form in the *Débats*, although on a larger scale it was similar to what we have witnessed in the case of Bellamy's 'Looking Backward.' Perhaps a further resemblance may occur to the reader of the following passage:

"In reality, Sue was in the position of Molière's 'bourgeois gentilhomme,' who spoke prose without being aware of it; for there was not the smallest evidence from his former

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work that he intended to inaugurate any crusade, either socialistic or philanthropic, when he began his 'Mystères de Paris.' He simply wanted to write a stirring novel. But, unlike M. Jourdain, he did not plead ignorance of his own good motives when congratulated upon them. On the contrary, he gravely and officially replied in the *Débats* without winking. Some of the papers, not to be outdone, gravely recounted how whole families had been converted from their evil ways by the perusal of the novel; how others, after supper, had dropped on their knees to pray for their author; how one workingman had exclaimed: 'You may say what you like, it would be a good thing if Providence sent many men like M. Sue in this world to take up the cudgels of the honest and struggling artisan.' Thereupon Béranger, who did not like to be forgotten in this chorus of praise, paid a ceremonious visit to Sue, and between the two they assumed the protectorship of the horny-handed son of toil." (Vol. i., p. 57.)

Another famous writer of whom glimpses are afforded in these pages is Alfred de Musset, of whom we are told that, like Balzac and Dumas, he was even something more than a man of genius: he was a man of the world and a gentleman, who thought it worth his while to be an agreeable companion.

"Unlike Victor Hugo, Lamartine, Chateaubriand, and Eugène Sue, all of whom I knew about the same time, they did not deem it necessary to stand mentally aloof from ordinary mortals. Alfred de Musset and Alexandre Dumas were both very handsome, but each in a different way."

"De Musset improved upon better acquaintance. He was apt to strike one at first as distant and supercilious. He was neither the one nor the other—simply very reserved, and at the best of times very sad, not to say melancholy. It was not affectation, as has been said so often; it was his nature. The charge of superciliousness arose from his distressing short-sightedness, which compelled him to stare very hard at people without the least intention of being offensive." (Vol. i., p. 44.)

We have allowed so much space to authors that we have almost crowded out the painters, musical composers, actresses, princes, and politicians, to say nothing of other kinds of magnates at whom our Englishman takes his snap shots. On page 65 of the second volume, speaking of Persigny, he says that this statesman "frankly averred that he preferred Walewski's undisguised and outspoken hostility to De Morny's very questionable cordiality. 'The one would take my head like Judith took Holofernes,' the other would shave it like 'Delilah shaved Samson's, provided I trusted myself to either, which I am not likely to do.'" To Persigny the author attributes a very important part in the creation of the Empire. He pronounces him the superior of Louis Napoleon in energy and activity, and the prime mover in the *Coup d'État*. He says that "in Persigny's mind the whole of the scheme was worked out prior to Louis Napoleon's election to the Presidency." "He did not want a republic, even with Louis Napoleon as a President for life; he wanted an Empire." He asserts that as late as Nov. 26 Napoleon endeavored to postpone the stroke for a month, but that "De Persigny showed his teeth and insisted upon the night of the 1st or 2d of December as the latest."

Of Napoleon III. he speaks with toleration, and has a high opinion of his abilities; his view has much in common with that expressed in the memoirs of the Duke of Coburg. He says that he knew Louis Napoleon very well for nearly a quarter of a century, and felt as little competent to give an opinion of him on the last day of his acquaintance as on the first. Concerning his pronunciation of French he says that "the moment he became excited the *f's* and the *t's* and the *p's* were always trying to oust the *v's*, the *d's*, and the *b's* from their newly acquired positions, and often gained a momentary victory." He relates that in Napoleon's first interview with Bismarck the former complimented the latter on his French as follows:

"'M. de Bismarck, I have never heard a German speak French as you do.'

"'Will you allow me to return the compliment, sire?'

"'Certainly.'

"'I have never heard a Frenchman speak French as you do.'"

Of Gen. Cavaignac, the only serious opponent of Napoleon in his candidacy for the Presidency, our author speaks with the utmost contempt. He believes that

"the nobodies who have governed or misgoverned France since the fall of Sedan were, from an intellectual point of view, eagles compared to that surly and bumptious drill-sergeant, who had nothing, absolutely nothing, to recommend him for the elevated position he coveted. He was the least among all those brilliant African soldiers whose names and prowess were on every one's lips; he had really been made a hero of, at so much per line, by the staff of the *National*, where his brother Godefroy wielded unlimited power. He was all buckram; and, in the very heart of Paris, and in the midst of that republic whose fiercest watchword, whose loudest cry, was 'Equality,' he treated partisans and opponents alike, as he would have treated a batch of refractory Arabs in a distant province of that newly conquered African soil. He disliked every one who did not wear a uniform, and assumed a critical attitude toward every one who did. His republicanism was probably as sincere as that of Thiers—it meant 'La République, c'est moi,' with this difference, that Thiers was amiable, witty, and charming, though treacherous, and that Cavaignac was the very reverse. 'Thiers, c'est la République en écureuil; Cavaignac, c'est la République en ours mal léché,' said a witty journalist." (Vol. ii., p. 10.)

The highest praise is bestowed on Eugène Rouher, who was sometimes called the Vice-Emperor. He "was, both in public and private life, an essentially honorable and honest man—as honest as Louis Philippe in many respects, far more honest in others, and absolutely free from the everlasting preoccupation about money which marred that monarch's character. He was as disinterested as Guizot, and would have scorned the tergiversations and hypocrisy of Thiers. The only blame that can be laid to his charge is that he allowed his better sense to be overruled by a woman; but that woman was the wife of his sovereign."

The sentence last quoted leads to the remark that our Englishman lays the misfortunes of France at the door of the Empress Eugénie. He devotes a good deal of his space to her doings, and comments with more or less of sarcasm on her attempts to create a court out of rather unpromising materials. He disapproves, in words, of the manner in which the old noblesse showed their contempt for her, but seems to take pleasure in describing it. He relates that on the day of her marriage "portraits of the new Empress and her biography were hawked about. There was nothing offensive in either, because the risk of printing anything objectionable would have been too great. But there was one picture, better executed than the rest, which bore the words, 'The portrait and the virtues of the Empress; the whole for two sous,' and that was decidedly the work of the Legitimists and Orleanists combined. I have ample proof of what I say."

It is impossible, within the limits of an article like this, to give more than a bare indication of the abundance of interesting matter contained in the volumes before us. We could have filled our whole space with a condensed transcription of the anecdotes and amusing stories they contain—such as, for instance, that of the model who was told by David d'Angers that she would not do because she was too fat, and bounced out of the room with the remark, "Monsieur can't expect me to go into a consumption for two francs fifty an hour"; or the saying of a Frenchman about Lord Brougham, who often made himself ridiculous in Paris in a way not in keeping with his position at home: "Quant à Lord Brougham, il n'y a pour lui qu'un pas entre le sublime et le ridicule. C'est le Pas de Calais, et il le traverse trop souvent."

The Tempest. A New Variorum Edition of Shakespeare. Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Vol. IX. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1892. Pp. xi, 465.

MR. FURNESS gives us, in his preface to the Variorum Edition of the "Tempest," an appetizer, as usual, for the feast of the commentators. It is an exposition of "the human and poetical side of *Caliban's* character." The central point is, that he had a soul imparted to him by *Miranda* as she taught him language. He never heard language from other lips than those of *Miranda* and *Prospero*. Mr. Furness sketches a lovely picture of summer night on the Enchanted Island from the glimpse which Shakspere gives when *Caliban* says that his mistress showed him the man in the moon with his dog and bush. With such a teacher, at such hours, it would be impossible to resist the atmosphere of poetry whose charm pervades the Enchanted Island. He always speaks in rhythm. It is he who gives the descriptions of the island which make it the "one magic isle of our imaginations."

One of the striking features of the volume is the number of beautiful passages from the commentators. The study of the play seems to have an effect on the students similar to that which *Miranda* and the island had on *Caliban*. Hazlitt, Hugo, Mrs. Kemble, Lowell, Ruskin, Dowden, Furnivall, Coleridge, Schlegel, and others of great name and fame rival each other in an eloquent admiration and happy exposition which takes a tone from the play itself. Allegorical interpretation is another striking feature of the commentaries. Shakspere is *Prospero*, *Miranda* is Art, *Ferdinand* is Fletcher; or may be *Prospero* is King James, and the teaching political; or it is a polemic against witchcraft, or a drama of reconciliation. Some of these speculators talk of the love tale as an episode, and complain of the *Miranda* and *Ferdinand* scenes as too long. Dry old heads these are. To simple youth all the rest is only a frame for these scenes.

There is a copious collection of discussions of the date of composition of the "Tempest"—thirty-four great fine-print pages. It would seem impossible to believe that it was one of the early plays, but that is argued at great length. Such argument belongs to the period before development ruled men's thought, when genius was regarded as something miraculous, a wonder-working power; the stranger the product attributed to it, the more readily it was believed—*credo quia impossibile*. A youth could write a book embodying the experiences of age, just as a world full of series of fossils could be made in an instant. One now can hardly help seeing that the author of "Romeo and Juliet" looks at *Juliet* and her father, and the author of "Hamlet" looks at *Ophelia* and old *Polonius*, from a very different

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point of view from that from which the author of the "Tempest" looks at *Miranda* and *Prospero*. They are young eyes which see old *Capulet* and *Polonius* as superannuated old bores. Those are grave old eyes which give to *Prospero* a gleam that never was, on sea or land. He does not seem to be very wise in worldly wisdom, does not utter maxims like *Polonius*. He has traits of the weakness of age; he keeps calling attention to what he is saying, as though he fears he is not listened to; he scolds with harsh language, but feebly, without discrimination—*Ariel* as harshly as *Caliban*, and even *Ferdinand;* but he has a halo around him. The two or three passages which are so universally thought of as expressions of Shakspere in his proper person, bidding farewell to the stage, and which are so sad and grand, give a pathetic grandeur to *Prospero*.

"We are such stuffe
As dreames are made on: and our little life
Is rounded with a sleepe"—

this Shakspere has passed through the distressed questionings of the *Hamlet* period; he worries no longer. But his thought is like that of the heathen councillor in Beda who compares life to the flight of a sparrow through the banqueting hall, from darkness into darkness.

The text of the "Tempest" is one of the very best of the First Folio, and yet the commentary is very copious. The few passages which are obscure have been endlessly discussed. Mr. Furness suggests that it may be because this play is first in the Folio and other old editions, and the critics come to it with unspent zeal. Mr. Furness usually gives a satisfactory decision very briefly. In the longest collection of all, that on the passage where *Ferdinand*, dreaming of *Miranda* as he piles logs, says:

"I forget:
But these sweet thoughts doe euen refresh my labours,
Most busie lest, when I doe it,"

Mr. Furness thinks *Ferdinand* is apologetic, excusing himself for stopping and dreaming, on the ground that it will refresh him for more work. That seems rather a feeble lover, a *Hamlet*. He may be simply rejoicing in his thoughts, and encouraging himself to go on briskly by remembering that they refresh his labor even when he works most busily (most busiliest). Any meaning which makes "lest" emphatic makes woful metre. The criticisms of the Shakspere Society of Philadelphia, 1864-'5, are strikingly good. This Mr. Furness thinks is the oldest Shakspere Society in existence, having had continuous life from 1851 to the present day.

Dryden's version of the "Tempest" is here reprinted, with very slight omissions, and "The Fair Sidea" in English translation. Some Germans, with eyes such as Mr. Weller desiderated—double million magnifying gas microscopes of extra power—see in this play the source of Shakspere's. The appendix on the sources is very full and interesting, forty-five pages. There are discussions of the duration of the action, the music, costume, and many other matters; among the rest, a good deal of etymology and other philology.

Early Greek Philosophy. By John Burnet, M.A. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1892. Pp. 378.

THE modern interest in origins is continually shifting the centres of consequence in history and transforming unimportant tracts of human experience into important. This book deals with the first 175 years of Greek speculation, from about 600 B.C. to the Peloponnesian War. Beginning with Thales and his immediate successors, Mr. Burnet traces the Ionic current through its aberrations in Pythagoreans, Eleatics, Empedocles, Anaxagoras, Leucippus, until it shoals upon Hippon,. Diogenes, and Archelaus, and is ready to enter the Socratic gulf. Of course the Sophists are not included, nor is Democritus. It is a well-demarcated section of history, possessing a distinct character; yet, though it is one of the most constructive portions of Greek philosophy, hitherto it has received less attention from English scholars than the decadent days of Ciceronian eclecticism. Half-a-dozen essays on it have appeared, and it has been described at somewhat greater length, though still in popular fashion, in Ferrier's, Mayor's, Benn's, and Marshall's general histories. The only authoritative account, however, previously accessible to English readers was that of the two volumes of Zeller's history which are translated under the title of 'Pre-Socratic Philosophy.' Mr. Burnet shows a proper respect for Zeller, but differs from him freely. His book is based on an independent study of the sources, and enjoys the distinction of being at once a solid piece of scholarship and the only volume written in English which considers exclusively this first division of Greek philosophy.

The noteworthy peculiarity of Mr. Burnet's treatment is the extreme stress which he lays on the cosmological character of the period. These men, he holds, were not philosophers at all; they were, without exception, devotees of physical science, their single question being, How must body be regarded if we consider it the ultimate reality? With Hegelian or Platonic ideas they had nothing whatever to do.

"When an early Greek philosopher speaks of τὸ ὄν, he does not mean Being, but Body; τὸ μὴ ὄν is simply space, and not Not-being. There is always before the mind of an Anaximander or a Heracleitus a perfectly clear pictorial idea; his system is thoroughly *anschaulich*. When, therefore, we seek to understand these systems, what we have to do is not to think them by means of rational concepts, but to picture them in our minds by means of images. We do not understand the view we are studying till we have done this, and we ought even to be able to draw a diagram of it on paper."

From this point of view everything is interpreted, even that which at first sight seems most adverse to physical construction. Anaximander's "boundless" easily becomes boundless substance. It is declared an anachronism to connect a numerical philosophy with Pythagoras. He was an animistic "medicine man," with little interest in morals or mathematics. He founded no secret league, but prescribed certain ceremonial religious observances or "taboos," teaching metempsychosis and the doctrine that a kind of dualism is involved in the physical elements of the world. To suppose Xenophanes a monotheistic missionary is also a mistake. He really concerned himself with showing how the ground of the physical world must be sought within the world itself. Parmenides pushed his doctrine one step further when he demonstrated that there is no such thing as empty space. Heracleitus's fire is the veritable fire that burns and crackles; his justice, the observance of a balance between the elements of fire and water of which the world is composed. The Love and Strife of Empedocles are not forces, but corporeal elements, just like the other four. Even the *nous* of Anaxagoras is a body occupying space; and his ultimate molecules, or "seeds," contain not qualities but "things."

No one has ever doubted that Greek philosophy began by asking what the world is made of. But this inquiry itself has seemed to most historians to involve a metaphysic which men became progressively aware of. The common view admits that the early Greeks laid strong stress on the physical aspects of existence; but it maintains, as it seems to us with justice, that no abrupt break occurs between the first rough physical guess of Thales and the dialectic subtleties of Plato's 'Republic.' The interest of this early philosophy lies largely in the fact that it is dominated by intelligence at unawares, and so that it naïvely discusses in physical terms problems whose idealistic significance the next century began to perceive. Perhaps Mr. Burnet would not deny this. But he so subordinates the philosophic import, notably in his treatment of the Eleatic School, that the "body" which these men talk about often appears to be a thing exclusive of mind. Yet that is impossible. Before body and mind have been discriminated, primitive substance possesses the attributes of both. Between cosmology and philosophy there is then no distinction. If, however, Mr. Burnet's dislike of Hegel has induced in him an occasional blindness, he has at any rate done good service in pointing out the prominence of the corporeal factor in early Greek philosophy. Unquestionably he throws great light on many obscure topics. He writes with full knowledge of the German literature of the subject. He has subjected to fresh criticism an enormous mass of historical material, and he has produced a weighty and intensely interesting book with which every student of Greek philosophy hereafter must reckon.

Henry Boynton Smith. By Lewis F. Stearns, D.D., late Professor in Bangor Theological Seminary, Maine. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

WE must go back to the first volume of the series, 'Jonathan Edwards,' by Dr. A. V. G. Allen, for another that compares with this in the importance of its subject and the adequacy of the treatment it receives. Edwards was, of course, a much greater subject than Prof. Smith, and his biography, well handled, made a book of much greater interest than Prof. Smith was able to inspire. But Prof. Stearns has been moved to write a very clear and strong and sympathetic life of one who was a leading theologian of the Presbyterian Church in our own time, and to do it in such a way that those who are least attracted by his thought will find in his character and personality, as here described, much of that charm by which the living man drew to him a host of friends.

Prof. Smith was born and bred a Unitarian. He entered Bowdoin College in 1830, and while there "experienced religion" in the orthodox manner, and proceeded straightway to adjust his creed to his experience. His conversion was one of many in the College, which had grown considerably in grace since 1810, "when the heart of President Appleton was cheered by the admission of a single Christian student, there being no professed Christians in the College"—one sign of many that the religious as well as the political views of Jefferson were in the ascendant in the first decades of the century. Smith had none of the hatred of Unitarianism which generally marks its converts to the orthodox ranks, and something of its liberality was always characteristic of his intellectual operations, though other influences, and much more important, contributed to the same result, viz., those of his theological studies in Germany, whither he went in 1837, and

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whence he returned in 1840. It is significant of the distrust of German studies which affected religious circles at that time that his superior training was a bar to his success on his return. For two years and a half the only friendly advances came from such liberal Unitarians as Channing and Parker and Clarke and Ripley and Hedge. For Ripley he translated something for his 'Specimens of Standard Foreign Literature,' and for Hedge's 'Prose Writers of Germany' he translated passages from Hegel and wrote a sketch of him. He was never taken in the Hegelian snare. He feared the Greeks bringing gifts even in those "fine days for theology," when so many found in Hegel the philosophical counterpart of the traditional creed. But his general faith in philosophy as the ally of revelation was not diminished by his distrust of the Hegelian system, so that it was only natural that, after a brief pastorate at Amesbury, Mass., he should become Professor of Philosophy in Amherst College.

While holding this position, he made, in 1849, the most significant effort of his whole career, the address at Andover on "The Relations of Faith and Philosophy." As a reply to Bushnell's "Dogma and Spirit," given at the same place the year before, it marked the position which he always held thereafter, opposing at once the most radical and the most conservative tendencies of the Congregational and Presbyterian bodies; in Prof. Stearns's phrase, he was "a mediating theologian." There was no more disparagement of reason in religion in his than in the Unitarian doctrine. But for "the central influence and the controlling energy" of his whole system he went to Revelation, and he assumed that Revelation stood inflexibly for the traditional scheme. There is something actually pathetic in his unconsciousness of critical science as a third factor in the business—one that would reassort and reinterpret the contents of the New Testament, and make it necessary to determine upon rational grounds the value of its different tendencies and parts. Prof. Smith had no suspicion of the fact that he was simply an apologist, the advocate of a foregone conclusion; but so it was, and all his brave philosophy was pledged to justify his theological beliefs.

From Amherst he was transferred in 1850 to Union Theological Seminary, where he was first Professor of Church History. An Old School man as a New England Congregationalist, he was a New School Presbyterian in his new position. Less advanced than Andover, he was more so than Princeton. He could not keep up with Park, but must keep ahead of Hodge, for whom Jonathan Edwards was not quite "true blue." In 1855 he was promoted to the chair of theology, and was at length exactly where he wished to be. From his teaching, the Seminary secured a consideration and an influence which it had never had before. As editor of a succession of Presbyterian Reviews he proved himself a master of polemics, and brought a searching criticism to the books which in succession challenged orthodox opinion, 'Essays and Reviews,' Renan's 'Life of Jesus,' and so on. But his criticism of Hamilton's doctrine of the unconditioned and of Mansel's 'Limits of Religious Thought' was much more valuable. Revelation without reason had for him no charms. To destroy reason in order to make Revelation indispensable was to make a wilderness and call it peace. His interest in the anti-slavery struggle and the war proved that he had not, in becoming a theologian, abdicated the functions of a man. No one was more active than he in bringing about the reunion of the Old School and New School Presbyterians. Prof. Smith did much better service as a thinker than as an "Ecclesiastical Statesman," and less by the particular results of his thinking than by his encouragement of the habit of thought, and by his conception of the theological field as embracing philosophy and literature and general history. For the annexation of science the time had not yet come.

The Silva of North America. By Charles S. Sargent. Part IV. Rosaceæ-Saxifragaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

PROF. SARGENT'S fourth volume is devoted almost wholly to one natural order of plants, for of the forty-one trees which are described and illustrated, forty belong to the order *Rosaceæ*, and the forty-first is the only saxifragaceous plant within our borders which is fairly a tree. These two natural orders are very closely related, the genus *Spiræa* being rosaceous, and *Astilbe*, which is counted saxifragaceous, differing from it in only the slightest degree. The *Rosaceæ* include by far the larger proportion of the fruit-trees of the north temperate zone, such as cherries, plums, peaches, apples, pears, quinces, service-trees, medlars, and hawthorns, besides the humbler bramble-berries and strawberries; and for this reason not only is this most careful account of our native rosaceous trees of great present interest, but in future years, when our native cherries, plums, and apples shall have been improved by cultivation and hybridization, it is to this volume that the pomologist will turn for a full description and history of the original stock.

The cocoa plum (*Chrysobalanus Icaco*) is a tropical American (and African) tree which occurs in Southern Florida. Its plums are pronounced sweet and rather insipid; they formed a favorite food of the Caribs four hundred years ago, and are still eaten by both whites and negroes. The genus *Prunus* is treated in its most comprehensive sense, and includes not only plums and cherries of all kinds, but also almonds, peaches, apricots, and laurel-cherries. Not all these sub-genera are found naturally in North America; but the author has something of interest to say about all of them in the foot-notes. Fourteen species of *Prunus* are described, seven of them plums and seven of them cherries of one sort or another. The choice of English names for the various trees shows no improvement over the earlier volumes, for no less than three species of *Prunus* have given them as vernacular appellations only the name "wild plum." A systematic botanist, in writing a work of this kind, has a splendid opportunity to fix and establish good distinctive common names; and one cannot but regret to see the opportunity neglected. The medicinal virtues of the wild black cherry are very properly referred to. A curious thing might have been mentioned in connection with it, viz., that the medical faculty generally write *Prunus Virginiana* when *Prunus serotina* is really intended, thus prescribing syrup of bark of the choke-cherry instead of the black cherry.

The spiræas are none of them trees, and the *Nuttallia cerasiformis*, the oso-berry of California and Oregon, is only a shrub, and is therefore not recognized in the 'Silva.' The same is true of the interesting genera *Neviusia*, *Cowania*, and *Purshia*. The mountain-mahogany (*Cercocarpus*) is a tree, however, and both species of the genus have their place in this volume. *Vauquelinia* is a West American genus, of which one species forms a tree in Arizona and California conspicuous for its leaves, which are snowy white on the lower surface. The fruit is capsular and inedible.

The Linnæan orthography *Pyrus*, rather than the ancient classical *Pirus*, is properly adhered to for the name of the genus which includes apples, crabs, pears, choke-berries, and the various kinds of mountain ash. Of true apples three North American species are recognized—two in the Atlantic and Mississippi Valley regions, and one on the Pacific. They have all been cultivated for ornament, and varieties of some of them are already attracting attention for their fruit. It would seem probable that hybrids between Old-World apples and these American species will eventually furnish varieties able to withstand the cold of the far Northwest and yielding abundance of delicious fruit. The small fruits of the Oregon crab, with their pleasantly acid flavor, are gathered and consumed by the Indians. We have two species of mountain-ash, both much resembling the European rowan-tree; one of them (*Pyrus sambucifolia*) extends as far north as Greenland and even into Kamtchatka. There are described no less than fourteen species of thorn (*Crataegus*), in which genus this continent is far richer than Europe. The berries, or haws, of all of them are edible, though, as the seeds are large and the pulp scanty and very acid, they are fitter for making jellies than for eating in their natural condition. *Heteromeles arbutifolia* is a Californian tree with large panicles of small acid berries, and is said to be very beautiful in winter—"more beautiful, perhaps," the author says, "than any other North American tree." The Eastern shadbush, with its two varieties, and the northwestern (species of *Amelanchier*) come next. These yield the service-berries, which are gathered in great quantities by the Indians, and are dried into a kind of cake after being thoroughly crushed by pounding. *Lyonothamnus floribundus* is a saxifragaceous tree found only on some islands off the coast of California. It has large cymes of white blossoms, and leaves singularly like those of the sweet-fern (*Myrica asplenifolia*) of the eastern part of the continent. Our native species of mock-orange (*Philadelphus*) are only shrubs, and so do not have a place in this work.

Mr. Faxon keeps fully up to his high standard of artistic excellence; the shading on his apples and plums is especially worthy of high commendation.

Dynamics of Rotation: An Elementary Introduction to Rigid Dynamics. By A.M. Worthington, M.A., Headmaster and Professor of Physics at the Royal Naval Engineering College, Devonport. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

THIS little volume of only 155 pages will be very useful to those persons who have a slight knowledge of the most elementary principles of mechanics, giving them in a dozen sittings, or not many more, all that is necessary to render their previous knowledge applicable to practical problems. It is written, too, in no perfunctory way; but the author has seriously addressed himself to the problem in practical psychology of how to bring a mind uncultivated in mechanical conceptions into a state comparable with that of a good mechanical engineer, and has produced a successfully working solution of it. Having judiciously divided his subject, so as to separate the difficulties which the learner must encounter, he begins, under each branch, by pointing out

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either familiar phenomena or else simple experiments to be performed; and by reflection upon these—by comparing and analyzing them under the guidance of the author—the student is gradually brought to a conception mathematically clear, which is at the same time firmly attached to well-recognized facts of observation. The result, we are confident, will be found to be that, considering the small amount of mathematics this little book supposes or teaches, the mastery it imparts to the student will be very satisfactory. As a good instance of the author's care, the mathematician should look over the explanation he gives of the gyroscope. We do not know where we have seen another, equally elementary, that has been so clear and detailed as this.

The merits of the work are such that we must forgive a few little slips of logic. Some persons might object that it does not cover the whole ground, in that, not only in the broad realm of rigid dynamics, but even in the narrower province of the dynamics of rotation, it does not teach all with which every man of good ordinary education ought to be well acquainted. But we are inclined to think that the author has exercised sound judgment in restricting his subject as he has done.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XIII. Nos. 1301-1371. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE papers in this volume of the collection are pleasanter reading than most of those which have previously been published. They relate principally to operations in Paris in 1775 and 1776, when the French Ministers were trying to persuade Lord Stormont, the English Ambassador, that their intentions were pacific. With this view, they did not hesitate to give the most positive assurances of their wish and intention to live in peace and friendship with Great Britain. They promised that they would not directly or indirectly give the "American Rebels" any sort of assistance. Yet the Count of Vergennes, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, did not resist the temptation of pointing out to his Lordship that England had herself to thank for her troubles, which were the natural consequences of the entire cession of Canada by France to Great Britain. "I was at Constantinople when the last peace was made," said the Count. "When I heard the conditions, I told several of my friends there that I was persuaded England would not be long before she had reason to repent of having removed the only check that could keep her colonies in awe. My prediction has been but too well verified" (1306).

Lord Stormont, meanwhile, was not deceived by the friendly professions of the Ministers. He suspected the connivance of the French Government at the sending of arms and stores to America. He had spies in the seaports and in Paris. But the nation as well as the court was against him. "The almost universal partiality of the French to the Rebels," says he, "makes it as difficult for me to collect information of what relates to the American agents as it is to get intelligence in an enemy's country" (1368). His Lordship's suspicions were not unfounded. The French Government was in fact conniving at the sale of munitions of war to American skippers, and was considering the policy to be adopted toward the "Bostoniens." Vergennes was a good friend to America at this juncture; he egged on his colleagues, he tried to excite the sluggish mind of the King. We have here several of those long documents emanating from his office in which the advantage to France of weakening her ancient enemy is elaborately set out.

There is nothing new to students of the period in all this, but the story is told in these papers with a minuteness hardly found elsewhere.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anstey, F. The Travelling Companions. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Biagi, Guido. Gli Ultimi Giorni de P. B. Shelley. Con nuovi documenti. Florence: G. Civelli.
Chetwynd-Stapylton, H. E. The Chetwynds of Ingestre. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Clarke, F. M. A Maiden of Mars. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Dewall, Johannes van. Dear Elsie. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Gréville, Henry. The Heiress. Worthington Co.
Jefferson, Samuel. Columbus: An Epic Poem. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Jones, E. E. C. An Introduction to General Logic. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Lewis, Rev. A. H. Paganism surviving in Christianity. Putnams. $1.75.
Littell's Living Age. April—June, 1892. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macalpine, Avery. A Man's Conscience. Harpers. 50 cents.
MacDonald, George. The Hope of the Gospel. Appletons.
Machar, Agnes M. Marjorie's Canadian Winter. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Markham, C. R. A History of Peru. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. $2.50.
The *Critic.* January—June, 1892. The *Critic* Co.
Tournemire, Salhias de. Pougatcheff. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

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[Continued from page iii.]

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THE MAITLAND SCHOOL FOR Girls, 40 French Broad Avenue, reopens Monday, September 26.
Mrs. B. MAITLAND, Principal.

NORTH CAROLINA, Asheville.

RAVENSCROFT SCHOOL.—PREPARatory Boarding and Day School for Boys. Head Master, RONALD MCDONALD, B.A., Oxford.

OHIO, Cincinnati, Mt. Auburn, 31 Bellevue Ave.

MISS LUPTON'S SCHOOL WILL reopen September 21. Pupils from this school have taken successfully the full Harvard Examination for admission, and have entered without conditions Vassar College and the Cincinnati University. A few boarding pupils are received. Circulars will be sent on application.

OHIO, Cincinnati, Walnut Hills.

MISS NOURSE WILL REOPEN HER English and French Family and Day School September 28, 1892. Pupils take special work or the full course for college examinations.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

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OHIO, Cincinnati.

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MISS BALDWIN'S DAY, BOARDing, and College Preparatory School for Girls reopens Sept. 28. For circular address
Miss FLORENCE BALDWIN.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chester.

PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACADEMY. 31st year begins September 14, 1892. A Military College. Degrees in Civil Engineering, Chemistry, and Arts.
Thoroughly organized Preparatory Department. Circulars of
Col. C. E. HYATT, President,

PENNSYLVANIA, Haverford P. O.

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Haverford P. O., Pa.

PENNSYLVANIA, Lititz, Lancaster County.

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